The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, APRIL 21, 1892.

The Week.

THE trouble with Italy arising out of the New Orleans massacre has been creditably and satisfactorily settled by the payment of an indemnity by us of $25,000 for the benefit of the victims, which the Italian Government accepts and undertakes to distribute. The deep regret of the American Government for what happened had already been expressed. But we trust some step will now be taken by the Administration to deliver the Government from the humiliation of inability to control the judicial proceedings to which the affair has given rise. Mr. Blaine had a good technical defence, through the treaty with Italy, against the attempt to fasten on the Federal Government the legal responsibility for the attack on the Italians in New Orleans. By the treaty Italy agreed to be content with such protection for the persons and property of Italians sojourning in this country as native Americans enjoy, namely, the protection of the State laws. But when the State of Louisiana refused to give this protection, and the effort to punish the lynchers ended in a total failure of justice, the Government at Washington certainly cut rather a sorry figure before the civilized world. It was morally responsible for the tragedy, but legally powerless to punish it. The situation made every intelligent American very much ashamed. The remedy seems simple enough—the passage of an act of Congress giving the United States courts jurisdiction of offences committed against foreigners, if they like to seek redress in these courts. The Supreme Court, in the case of Baldwin vs. Franks, has intimated that Congress has the power to make section 5519 of the Revised Statutes cover aliens resident in or sojourning in this country. This section makes penal the conspiracy of two or more persons "to deprive, either directly or indirectly, any person or class of persons of the equal protection of the laws, and of equal protection under the laws." This might not serve the purpose exactly of enabling United States authorities to protect foreigners, but the power to pass this act implies the power to pass another of the same sort.

It is announced that our Government is on the point of signing a copyright treaty with Spain, which probably means that the same advantages are to be extended to Spain by Presidential proclamation as have already been accorded to England, France, Belgium, and Switzerland; that is to say, Spanish authors can secure copyright in this country on condition of simultaneous publication, and provided their books are printed here from type set by American labor. This last proviso is one that has greatly impaired the benefits of our new Copyright Law to English writers, and made them almost nugatory to Frenchmen. At any rate, Zola, who is about the only French author of note to have made a trial of the new law thus far, states that he has copyrighted one book in America, but never will another, as the process proves to be so troublesome and costly. If he discovers the case to be such, it is certain that no Spanish writer will find the privilege of any substantial value. The simultaneous-printing clause has raised the interesting question whether a story first published serially in an English magazine can secure copyright in the United States. The practice of one publisher would appear to indicate that he thought not. Though the authorized publisher for J. M. Barrie in this country, he did not dare to wait till that writer's 'Little Minister,' published in England in *Good Words*, reached its end, but brought out an edition with the concluding instalment missing. Having thus forestalled any possible piratical rival, he afterwards printed the story complete. We also see it stated that some American authors suffer from the new law, inasmuch as they are no longer able to get copyright both in England and their own land on a single set of plates, made perhaps in England at rates cheaper than our own. Of course, the friends of copyright had to take what they could get when the bill passed, and be thankful that it was as well with them as it was; but in their future efforts to perfect the measure they surely will endeavor to have the simultaneous-printing and American-composition clauses stricken out.

The recent announcement of Mr. Wanamaker that he will retire from public life at the end of President Harrison's term and return to the management of his private business, confirms the report that the President is more or less weary of him. Taken by and large, Wanamaker has been the heaviest of the many burdens that the Harrison Administration has placed upon the country. He was taken from his bargain-counter and the Bethany Sunday-school by President Harrison, and was thus enabled to add politics to his professional mixture of piety and business. He not only entered the Cabinet as the most religious Republican business man in the world, as Col. Shepard is the most religious Republican editor in the world, but he entered it as the first man who was known to have bought his portfolio for cash. There was an incongruity about these two qualifications for the place which has not been dispelled by his conduct in office. He has been a failure as Postmaster-General, although he has made some improvements in the postal service of the country; he has demoralized it with "politics" of the most worldly sort, and, while persistently talking piety, has so ignored and violated the civil-service regulations that a steadily increasing crop of scandal has been accumulating in his wake, till he is now at the point of an open rupture with the Civil-Service Commission.

It is likely to be a long time before another President repeats the Wanamaker experiment. No successor to Harrison will think it worth while to seek to increase his popularity by putting a professionally religious man into high office, for Wanamaker and Harrison together have dispelled for ever the idea which many people had, that such men would make better public officials than men either not professionally religious or not religious at all. In doing this, Wanamaker and Harrison have brought discredit upon religion, but they have done the country a service by making it difficult if not impossible for demagogues and humbugs of all kinds to get into office by loud professions of piety. Wanamaker was the first of his kind in national politics, and he is likely to be the last. His decline dates from the revelation of his connection with the Keystone Bank rascals, for it seems to be one of the peculiarities of President Harrison that he has no further use for a faithful friend who allows himself to be caught and exposed. He dropped Dudley after the "blocks of five" charge had been proved against him, and dropped Quay after his performances with the State funds of Pennsylvania had been so completely exposed that the whole country pronounced him guilty. Now he is preparing to drop Wanamaker.

The action of the Nebraska Democratic State Convention on Thursday shows how rapid is the collapse of the free-silver movement. There is no part of the country where this movement seemed stronger two years ago than in Kansas and Nebraska. Republicans and Democrats alike appeared to be carried away by the craze. The Kansas Republicans, in their State Convention of 1890, adopted a resolution declaring that "we demand free coinage of silver, a measure strongly opposed and vigorously denounced by the late Democratic Administration, led by ex-President Grover Cleveland." The same year the Democrats of Nebraska adopted a platform condemning the Republicans for their unfriendliness to silver, and saying that "We declare ourselves in favor of the free coinage of silver." The free-coinage men went to Thursday's Convention expecting to repeat the declaration of 1890, but only one member of the whole Committee on Resolutions favored such a deliverance. The champion of sil-

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ver, Congressman Bryan, then decided to carry the fight into the Convention itself, supposing that he would find an overwhelming majority of the delegates on his side; but although he is an exceedingly forcible speaker, and made the best possible case for his side, he was beaten by 247 to 229.

The Florida Republicans held a State Convention last week, elected Harrison delegates to the National Convention, and adopted a platform in which they complain that they are cheated in elections so badly that it is of no use to vote. The concluding resolution is as follows:

"That we consider it utterly useless for us to put tickets in the field for any office—State, Congressional, or national—and we hereby decline to do so until our rights are protected and our political liberty secured to us by the enactment of an effective national election law."

If no Republican ticket is nominated in Florida until a Force Bill has been adopted, it will be a long time before there is a Republican ticket in the field. Probably it will be the best thing for the State not to have a Republican ticket. The Democrats are bound to split as soon as there is no opposition to them, and, when that happens, both factions will insist upon fair play at the polls. The only cure for such troubles is to be found at home; they can never be removed by sending troops from Washington.

The *Congressional Record* for the first session of the Fifty-first Congress consisted of eleven large volumes of nearly one thousand pages each, besides an index volume, itself the largest of the series. As the session was of eleven months' duration, this was equivalent to about one thousand pages per month. But the present Congress bids fair to beat that average, not in the way of actually spoken words, but under the customary "leave to print," which has now become a gross and even shameful abuse. During the past week several members on the Democratic side have attempted to secure a reprint of Henry George's book, 'Protection or Free Trade,' as a part of the national records by introducing successive chapters into their own speeches. In some cases there was no speech at all made by the member who thus loaded the *Record*, but only a few words, saying, "These are my sentiments," followed by several pages of Mr. George's book. Of course, this hint was not lost on the other side of the House. Accordingly, we find in the *Record* of Saturday a similar effort on the part of Mr. Milliken of Maine, who says, "These are my sentiments"—writing eight lines for that purpose—and then puts in fifteen pages of a campaign document on the protectionist side that has been in circulation for some time, the author's name not being announced. Next in order comes Jerry Simpson of Kansas, with six pages of Henry George. Mr. Simpson is more economical of his own speech than Mr. Milliken was, for he uses only six lines to Milliken's eight. Then comes Mr. Dolliver of Iowa with five pages of the writings of R. G. Horr, introduced by nine lines of his own composition. This number of the *Congressional Record* contains fifty-two pages of matter, including two pages of petitions presented and referred. Twenty-five pages are occupied with the sayings of George, Horr, and the unknown author of the Republican campaign document. This exhibit would ordinarily imply barrenness of ideas and poverty of intellect among the Congressmen who make such use of the *Record*, but this would not be the true explanation of the matter. They want to circulate certain documents at the public expense. This would be very smart, although dishonest, if the practice could be restricted to one side; but when both parties resort to it, it becomes a burden to both.

Not long ago a circular was issued by the publisher of the *Tribune*, in which he solemnly and unselfishly appealed to all good Republicans to subscribe for his paper, on the ground that it was about to "educate" the people of this country on the tariff question. The educational campaign was going on at high pressure in Sunday's issue, and something was provided to suit every taste. To show the catholic impartiality with which the editing is done, we put side by side extracts from its London correspondence (first page) and its editorial utterances (sixth page):

FIRST PAGE.

America and the McKinley tariff have heretofore been held responsible for a good part of the diminution in the volume of English trade, but it now appears that the effect of this particular cause has been overestimated. . . . They [the Democratic and Mugwump allies in America of the British manufacturer] like to attribute to the McKinley tariff all or nearly all the ills that flesh is heir to. But since it benefits us and hardly hurts their British allies, they may, perhaps, be induced to attack their own country on some other ground.

SIXTH PAGE.

The trade returns in England prove that the McKinley Tariff Act has damaged the export trade of that country. Experts differ in determining the percentage of loss; but they unite in admitting that the effects of American legislation have been very serious. As the McKinley Act has materially benefited the United States, it would be natural to expect a compensating loss somewhere on the other side; and England is as well prepared to bear the loss as any other European country. The authors of the act were not legislating for England, but for the United States, and they deliberately brought about a transfer of industry from one side of the ocean to the other.

We must add a third even more authoritative extract, to be found in a recent speech of the editor himself. Said Mr. Reid:

"In any case, we shall have plenty of trade with her, and I hope a growing trade. There is every reason for it. Each country produces at the best what the other wants. France must buy our raw materials and certain of our manufactures. We must buy the finest and most artistic things in the world, whatever they cost, and it is France that makes them. Who supposes that you could stop American women from buying French gowns, fine silks, ribbons, and *articles de Paris;* or American men from buying French pictures and bronzes and tapestries, Bordeaux and champagnes, even if a dozen McKinleys stood in the way? We'll grumble about the price, of course—why shouldn't we?—but we'll buy all the same."

Thus we get the three opinions—that the McKinley Bill has not checked foreign exports to this country; that it has; that it has not and will not, but will only raise prices in this country. It is certain that no other than "the greatest American newspaper" would give its readers such an embarrassment of riches in a single number.

The majority report of the Joint Committee of the Legislature in the Maynard case has been made, but as every one knew what it was to be, it is not necessary to analyze it, particularly as it is not likely to exert the smallest influence on public opinion. The report will, however, have considerable value for Judge Maynard himself, as he will be able to send it down to his posterity as the genuine official judgment of the constituted authorities on his conduct, and as a sufficient answer to the Committee of the Bar Association when all knowledge of the standing and acquirements of his whitewashers shall have perished from the earth. But it will do the Judge no good during his mortal career, owing to the notoriety of his case and the extraordinary severity of the blow dealt to his reputation by the Bar Association. By the bye, why does he not have the whole Committee arrested for "criminal libel"? He would have no difficulty in getting warrants for every man of them. Their report was not privileged, and is as full of libellous matter as an egg is of meat.

The Speedway Law has been repealed and the Central Park has thus been delivered, we trust for all time, from one of the most devastating raids upon its beauty and usefulness ever devised. The Tammany leaders are rejoicing greatly over the repeal, and one of them, Mr. Gilroy, is reported as having said, "This means 20,000 votes for Tammany Hall this fall." What Mr. Gilroy meant was, that if the repeal bill had failed of passage, Tammany would have lost that number of votes. His statement is, therefore, a confession that fear of losing votes is the all-powerful motive for good government in Tammany. Rather than face a possible loss of 20,000 votes, the Tammany bosses compel the Legislature to repeal a law which, under orders from the same bosses, the same Legislature passed only a few weeks earlier. The speedway project was a Tammany invention; and Tammany influence would have carried it into execution but for the fear of the loss of votes. In other words, Tammany did not abandon its raid because convinced of its outrageous character, but because it was frightened by

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public opinion into a temporary act of contrition and decent behavior.

The eulogy on Croker which ex-Secretary Whitney left behind in the *World* on Thursday before sailing for Europe, as a man who has "worked his way up by force of character and good sense," and "as perfectly honest," and "as hard a worker as there is in the country," entirely misconstrues the objections felt to Croker in this community. Croker may be "honest," in the sense of not committing either grand or petty larceny, and may be a "hard worker," but how do these things qualify him to be ruler of a great city, to sit in private and distribute its offices without the slightest regard to the fitness of the appointees, to sell judicial nominations and pocket the money without accounting, so far as the public knows, to anybody; to decide, without appeal, and often by telegraph, what bills shall pass the State Legislature and what shall not, being all the while a very ignorant and illiterate man, who has never given the smallest outward sign of concern for the public interest? What was he working at when he was working so hard? Is it not astonishing that any American, with a spark of national pride or a spark of care for the good old cause of free government, should not be shocked at seeing the chief city of the Union ruled by such a man, almost as absolutely as Tiberius ruled Rome, and with even more contempt for constitutional forms (for Tiberius took great pains to hide his legislative power behind the authority of the Senate)—and all this so early in the national annals? We say with deliberation that history may be searched in vain for a situation so full of humiliation as that in which New York sits to-day, under the domination of three or four ignorant men of foreign birth. We do not blame Croker in the least for getting what he has got—he must have some imperial stuff in him to get it; but what shall we say to the descendants of the Pilgrims, and the Signers, and the Knickerbockers, who are happy and content under his sway, and plaster him with adulation?

When the New York Presbytery voted last fall to dismiss the case against Prof. Briggs, it was clear that such a decision meant only the wish of the majority to hush up the question irrespective of its real merits, and it was equally clear to any dispassionate observer of the situation in the denomination at large that the case could not find a final settlement in that way. The victory of the anti-Briggs party in the Presbytery in the election of delegates to the General Assembly on Monday week, and the agitation of the same old issue reported from various Presbyteries of the country, notably at Cincinnati and at Cleveland, show how impossible it is to cover up such a fire when it has once broken out. The present outlook is for some action at the General Assembly, a month from now, which will put an unmistakable ban upon the accused professor and the seminary that retains him in its corps of instructors. Saying nothing of the weight of argument on the two sides of the controversy, it is perfectly evident that the conservatives have the heaviest battalions, and mean to use them relentlessly. They include almost all the noted politicians of the Church, who have the unfaltering faith of the Cardinal in the "odd man" as the organ of the will of Providence, and who have been busily at work all the winter in seeing to it that there shall be no doubt on which side that man shall turn up. The turn-about in the Presbytery of this city is no doubt due in great part to the maintenance by Prof. Briggs of his positive and aggressive position. If he had gone about on tip-toe, with a padlock on his mouth, the compromisers and hushers-up would have stood by him; but he is not that kind of a man, and the issue he has created is now more unavoidably upon the Presbyterian Church than ever before.

We have not yet seen any authentic account of the proceedings of the Central American Diet which met in San Salvador on February 15, but it is safe to say that the results of its deliberations will not promise so fair as did those of the meeting of three years ago. At that time a full-fledged plan for confederation was agreed upon, needing only the approval of the Congresses of the separate countries to be carried into effect. The outlook for peace and union was very rosy for a time, but the next year came the Pan-American Congress and gave the Spanish Americans such an over-dose of fraternity that a reaction set in as soon as the delegates got home, and they have been flying at each other's throats since in a way quite unexampled in all their history. The Central American republics in particular fell foul of one another with the proverbial fury of a family quarrel, and the project of federation seemed for ever abandoned. However, it was to be discussed again in this year's Diet, together with a proposal, in the meantime, to formulate a general criminal and commercial code, to remove various restrictions on trade, and to make the laws governing citizenship and extradition uniform in the five countries. Certainly, all industrial and progressive interests call for the abolition of the existing territorial divisions, with their perpetually antagonistic and clashing governments; but the curse of popular ignorance and of military rule thinly disguised under republican forms will probably continue to retard the advance of Central America for a long while.

The revelations about the condition of that portion of the British Army which remains at home after the regiments have been drained of their best men for foreign service, are one more indictment, and a very serious one, of the system of voluntary enlistment in our day. The accounts given by officials of the poor quality of the home garrisons simply mean that in order to fill the ranks large numbers of weedy men have been enlisted. To the question, Why have weedy men to be enlisted? the answer is, that the pay is too small in the present condition of the labor market, and the soldier's trade is too much discredited by the memories of what it used to be in the early part of the century. Wellington's army was literally composed of the dregs of the population, and was kept in order by a savage discipline in which ferocious flogging played a large part. This degraded the army horribly in the popular eye, and made the friends of a young man who enlisted give up him as a social pariah. The life of the soldier in the barracks, too, was wretched, and fully expressed the view taken of his deserts by his superiors. Since then his condition has been greatly improved. He is well lodged, and though scantily, yet is on the whole well fed. Very elaborate care is taken of his health, and he is supplied with books and periodicals and schools, which, for a man desirous of self-improvement, would make a term of enlistment a by no means undesirable mode of beginning life, if it were not for the traditions which surround the calling. "A common soldier" still occupies the very lowest place in English life. The uniform which glorifies the officer degrades the private, no matter how many victories he wins in all quarters of the globe. This tradition is not likely to be broken up until conscription sweeps all classes into the ranks.

The exceedingly bitter feeling excited among the lower classes of Berlin by the Emperor's Brandenburg speech found characteristic expression in the cry of the mob during the recent riots: "Wir bleiben hier; der Lump kann gehen" (We mean to stay; the Ragamuffin may go). Only a series of utterances that seemed to be wilful and systematic outrages of public sentiment could have provoked such insulting shouts under the palace windows of the Prussian capital. The educated classes have declined the proffered expatriation in dignified language in the press, and the comic papers have had their fling at the new "L'État, c'est moi." Americans who wonder at the Emperor's folly, however, should bethink themselves of recent events at home in the same spirit. Speaker Reed's treatment of the minority was an almost explicit denial of their right to any standing at all in the House or in the government of the country, and fell little short of Cromwell's expulsion of the Rump Parliament. And, in the campaign of 1888, who can recall without shame the impudent appropriation of the national flag as an exclusive symbol by the protectionist party, and the relegation of its opponents to the British flag, thus proclaiming a moral disfranchisement, denaturalization, and deportation of one-half the citizens of the United States!

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SCOPE OF THE MAY CONVENTION MOVEMENT.

It must be apparent to all close observers that the protesting Democratic State Convention which is to be held in this State next month is to be something more than an anti-Hill gathering. The experienced Democratic managers who are organizing the Convention are not working for temporary results alone. They are not seeking merely the selection, by a genuinely representative party Convention, of a delegation to Chicago which will fitly represent the party, but are seeking to set the party itself in such a light before the people of the State that a self-respecting citizen may not be ashamed to say that he belongs to it. So long as the party consents to be dominated by the Hill Machine, self-respecting citizens will hesitate to ally themselves with it or to vote for its candidates. This was shown to everybody's satisfaction in the town elections. The odium of Hillism drove over to the Republican side thousands of voters who had in the November election voted the Democratic ticket, and kept thousands of other Democratic voters away from the polls.

Sagacious Democratic leaders have been quick to catch the alarm from this situation. They had been uneasy for a long time under the Hill domination, and it was only a question of time when they would revolt from it. The calling of the snap Convention gave them their opportunity, but it was merely the culminating act in a long series of abuses by the party machine which he had built up. Accordingly, in organizing a protest within the party against that Convention, the leaders of the revolt determined to make their work thorough and reorganize the party itself. That is what the May Convention is destined to do. The delegates to that Convention will be elected on what will undoubtedly be the fairest enrolment of voters ever made by a great party in this State, and as fair as was ever made in any State. It will therefore be a representative body in the fullest sense of the term, and will command recognition as the organized will of the Democratic voters of New York State.

That this will be the character of the May Convention is evident from the statements which have been made in reference to the work of enrolment in various counties of the State. In Erie County, out of a total of 29,000 Democratic voters, about 20,000 have been enrolled in protest against the methods which culminated in the snap Convention. In Madison County, over 2,000 have been enrolled in a total of 3,500, and the same proportion holds in nearly all the other counties of the State. When it is borne in mind that every voter who signs his name to the list is liable to the charge of bolting, the significance of these figures becomes apparent, for Democrats are proverbially loath to take any step which looks like a violation of party fealty.

The real explanation of this revolt, which is not so much a revolt as it is the uprising of the masses of the party against a clique of unworthy leaders, is to be found in the steadily increasing uneasiness which the decent men in the party have felt during the seven years of Hill's control. They saw, when the snap Convention was called and held, that they had tolerated this control too long, that they ought to have disputed it years ago, and that the only way open to them now for the salvation of their party in the State lay in giving the party an opportunity to take its organization into its own hands. They had been restless for a long time under the practice which prevailed among Republicans everywhere of holding up the Democratic party of the State of New York as a "horrible example" to the rest of the country; and when the snap Convention put Hill before the country as the choice of his party in the State, there was only one way in which the Republican charge could be met. That was to repudiate Hill and destroy his Machine. The May Convention movement has been forced to make this its objective point from the outset, and it is now certain of accomplishing it.

The Democratic party of the rest of the country ought to be deeply interested in the success of this movement, and ought to do all in its power to see that its work not only is completely successful, but is sanctioned by the National Convention. Nothing has done the Democratic cause in the nation at large greater harm than the bad character of the controlling influences of the Democratic party in this the foremost State in the Union. That the party in this State should have as its leading representative a man like David B. Hill, with an apparently all-powerful organization of semi-criminals and liquor-dealers behind him, and that the whole party should accept him as its representative, were facts which were worth thousands of votes to the Republican candidates.

The May Convention will remove this stigma, and will do the Democratic party in the nation a service of incalculable value, second—if second—only to the Bar Association's unpartisan verdict in the Maynard case. That verdict was regarded by Hill as a deadly assault upon himself, and he was right in so considering it. Maynard's offence was an outgrowth of Hill's system, and the Bar Association's verdict was the first gun of the Democratic revolution against that system. It was one of the most powerful moral tonics ever administered to the debilitated system of a great political party. No parallel to it can be found in the history of either of the great parties in this country. The good effect of it upon the New York Democracy will be heightened and strengthened when the May Convention shall have met and done its work, but the cure will not be completed unless that work is recognized and confirmed by the National Convention.

THE PROPER WORK OF THE CITY CLUB.

No more encouraging gathering has been held in this city for many a day than that which assembled last week to usher into formal existence the new City Club. In numbers it exceeded both the expectations of the promoters of the movement and the capacity of the hall, and in character it was representative of all that is worthy and of good repute in the community. That such a body of men should come together at a time when there is no particular provocation for protest against municipal maladministration, simply because they had been asked to form a permanent organization in the interest of good city government, is a most encouraging sign. It shows that there is such a thing as civic pride in this community, and that the number of people who are ashamed of the existing condition of affairs is much greater than has been suspected.

It is a great pity that Mr. Carter's and Mr. Hewitt's speeches were not fully reported, for they were both full of doctrine, of reproof and of instruction regarding the condition of city politics. Mr. Carter's was especially interesting as in a certain sense tracing out the programme of the Club's work. On this programme so traced we have no criticism to offer except on one point, but this is an important one. We are unable to quote his exact words, but we are sure we preserve the sense when we say that he urged on the Club to avoid "personalities" or attacks on individuals, and confine themselves in their agitation to trying to show up the iniquity of "the system." The fault of "the system" is, in his view, that it compels candidates to take office under a great burden of pledges, and it is as the result of the efforts of the candidates to redeem these pledges that we get bad government; so that if we break up the system of giving these pledges, we shall reform the municipal administration.

Now, we make bold to say that if the City Club fails in the vigorous and constant use of personalities, it will fail altogether to do the work it has set before itself. Personalities have got a bad name because they are too frequently used in lieu of argument concerning matters of opinion. But the fight against Tammany Hall, wherein, as Mr. Hewitt well pointed out, the work of reform in this city must mainly consist, does not arise out of differences of opinion among honest men. This city is badly governed owing to the bad conduct of certain men, and owing to nothing else under heaven. The "system," in so far as they have one, differs in no respect from the distribution of parts which conspirators have always to make when they undertake to rob a bank. Some watch on the sidewalk, some inside the door, one holds the lantern, another plies the cold chisel, and another puts the dynamite in

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the hole. All concerted action among criminals, as among honest men, needs a system, but no denunciation of the system will ever do anything to bring the criminals to justice.

If the Club go about among the workingmen of this city, refraining from hard words about the Tammany leaders and expending all their invective simply on the Tammany Society as an objectionable organization, they will accomplish nothing; the plain voters will soon tire of their preaching. The plan of taking pledges in order to secure election has nothing objectionable in it *per se*. Such pledges are exacted in all parliamentary countries from candidates for all sorts of offices. The reformers demand them just as much as the Tammany men. They reflect no discredit either on those who exact them or those who give them. The City Club will have to extort them vigorously from candidates for municipal offices, as well as from candidates for the Legislature, if it means to make an impression. Each pledge must be judged on its own merits, and by its nature we must judge the man who makes it. There was, for instance, no harm in Mayor Grant's pledging himself before election to appoint certain men to office. What concerns the public, and what will concern the City Club, is what kind of men he did appoint in execution of these pledges. This shows us at once the use, the necessity, for personality. No system, no plan of action, comes down out of the sky. Men make systems to suit their needs. If they make them for bad ends, they are bad men. If Grant uses his appointing power to put grossly unfit men on the police bench, for instance, what do we care whether it is done under pledge or out of his own head? What would be the use in asking him? In either case it shows his own unfitness for the Mayoralty, and it thus would become the business of the Club to denounce him, not as A or C or X, or as a "System," but as Hugh J. Grant, guilty of gross offences against the public weal. It was not a system which robbed the city in 1870. It was certain individuals named William M. Tweed, Richard B. Connolly, and others, and the work of reform consisted in catching, trying, and punishing them, and using them by name to enlighten the public judgment and sharpen the public conscience.

We constantly forget that the work of municipal government consists almost wholly in administration, and the higher duty of administration consists almost wholly in the exercise of the appointing power. Nearly the whole of the Mayor's task, and by far the most important part of it, consists in the filling of offices. If the offices of this city were to-day filled by competent men of good character, and had been so for the last twenty years, wherein would the badness of the city government consist? What need would there be for the City Club? Does not this badness now consist in the fact that the sweepers do not sweep, that the pavers do not pave, the police do not police, the justices do not judge, or judge wrongly or corruptly, the tax-spenders do not spend, or spend on improper objects, that the Park Commissioners are unfaithful to their trust, and the Park laborers loaf and drink? Why, the whole city government is simply a mass of more or less corrupt and unsavory personality. Persons are the thing to be reformed. Personal character and personal conduct are the things to be investigated. "Who are you?" and "How did you get here?" and "What are you doing?" are the city reformers' first, second, and third questions.

The main duty of the City Club will be, therefore, unless we are greatly mistaken, the duty of finding out who these creatures who reign over us are, how they get into city service, and in what manner they are earning their salaries, and of explaining to the voters what they discover. Next after it will be the protection, which only a strong organization can give, to the poor voters who are now intimidated into subservience to Tammany by the police justices, the police captains, and the "leaders" of the various districts. This class must find in the Club a strong tower of defence. Moreover, it must relieve the newspaper press of some of the expense and risk of tracking these unclean animals to their original lairs, and showing in what manner they qualified for the profession of public plunderers. Nor is it by any means necessary, as some try to persuade us, that the members of the Club must spend their evenings in the slums, and labor with the refuse of the city population, in order to roll up majorities against Tammany. Nothing the Club or any organization can do will oust Tammany from its control of the haunts of extreme poverty, and of vice and crime. In those depths the Boss will always reign supreme. The business of the Club is to organize against Tammany that large majority of decent people, rich and poor, which has always existed, which has never voted the Tammany ticket, but which is defeated, betrayed, and confused at every municipal election by the raising of Federal issues. It was not from the slums that the 30,000 registered voters came who refused to vote at the last municipal election; it was from comfortable or luxurious homes. The evangelization of these heathen is to be the proper work of the Club, and it will be neither difficult nor repulsive.

A PERSISTENT LITERARY SUPERSTITION.

A PICTURE of publishers sitting at a banquet where wine was quaffed from the skulls of their victims—the unfortunate writers of the books out of which they had made enormous profits—would be regarded by most people as belonging to almost the prehistoric age of literary caricature; yet the idea underlying it has a surprising vitality even at the present day. No one at all in contact with the book-publishing trade, or with periodical literature, can have failed to come upon occasional survivals of the old superstition. Now it will be a beseeching letter from some struggling genius unable to make head against the universal conspiracy of publishers to prevent his writings from winning that immortal renown which type, ink, and paper are alone needed to secure. Again it will be the fine bravado of some book printed by its author, defiantly announcing that it had been declined by all the leading publishers of the country, who were now to see what a mistake they had made. Perhaps it will be a puzzled request to be shown how to get the "entrée" into a specified magazine or quarterly. The evidence rapidly accumulates, in short, before any one in a position to observe it, that there are multitudes of people who still think that publishers are set for the suppression of talent, and that there are some mysterious and occult paths of "influence" which a writer must learn to tread before he can hope to arrive at publication.

This old and persistent illusion was made the subject of remark in a speech by Mr. Frederick Macmillan at the Booksellers' Annual Trade Dinner in London last month. Speaking in the name of publishers in general, he affirmed that "the necessity of having successful books on their lists is only equalled by their assiduity in looking for them." He also cited some statistics of the publications of the Macmillans during 1891, which have an interesting bearing upon the question of the relation of publishers to authors not yet known to fame. The house mentioned published during the twelvemonth 166 new books. Of these no less than 144 were what might be called bespoken—that is to say, they had not, for a variety of reasons, to be passed upon in the manuscript stage; they were either in continuation of a series already begun, or were volumes which well-known writers had been commissioned to produce, or were the works of authors whose names were alone a guarantee of success, and for whose writings many publishers are eager competitors. The remaining twenty-two volumes were voluntary offerings to the firm, and were accepted on their merits; but they were the only survivors out of a total of 315 manuscripts offered.

Such an experience very well epitomizes the general course of the publishing business. Because it is a business, and not a philanthropic or happy-go-lucky enterprise, it necessarily follows that publishers must have their main dealings with writers who have already won a place in the profession. In other words, publishers must know beforehand what the bulk of their year's output is to consist of; they must have their foregoing engagements and contracts, and cannot sit back idly awaiting a volume of poems from Gifted Hopkins

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or a novel from George Winton Wood—that preposterous character in Crawford's latest story who writes in ten days a powerful novel which soon brings him in $10,000. But this is not to say that they will not give a fair and respectful hearing to the effusions of Gifted and of George. It is curious how strong is the conviction of many unsuccessful literary aspirants that their manuscripts are rejected by publishers because returned unread. It seems to them simply impossible that their genius could have failed to be recognized except in that way. So sure are some mute, inglorious Miltons that this is the case that, as Mr. Macmillan asserts, it is becoming their practice to propose to bring their manuscripts in person and read them aloud in the publisher's astonished ear, thus putting their talent in open and incontrovertible evidence.

Such offers are, we believe, generally declined with thanks; but there is really no occasion for making them. True genius is not half so anxious to find a publisher as a publisher is to find true genius. Vast as is the supply of writing in these days, the supply of good writing is nowhere near the demand for it. Its dearth is all that drives an editor or a publisher to search through the masses of manuscript sent him. In spite of the teachings of a long and discouraging experience, he still hopes to find a brilliant article or an original book turning up in some unexpected quarter. His ghoul-like glee is not, as is commonly supposed, exhibited in the act of returning a manuscript, but when, scarcely believing his own eyes, he electrifies his associates by telling them that he has discovered a bit of high-class work in a writer whom nobody ever heard of before. No, the struggling geniuses and their friends are altogether wrong in contending that the publisher is their great obstacle and enemy. They are the very ones he is on the watch for and spends his time and money in trying to find. His idea of what a genius is may be somewhat different from theirs, but when he finds the genuine article, or thinks he does, he is happier than the genius is. So eager is he in the search for this hid treasure that he is often over-credulous instead of, as usually said, over-sceptical, and has to pay dear for being too confident that he has at last found his man. The hardships and losses of the unrecognized author have been a frequent theme of the melancholy muse; who will ever sing of the disappointments and losses of the publisher who, to his cost, has recognized an author only to find that the reading world will not recognize him?

We are not propounding publishers as fit for immediate canonization; they doubtless have their faults, and there is a goodly array of Devil's Advocates to exhibit them skilfully and with a loud noise. Into the general question of their relations with authors we have not here entered. All that we have sought to do is to point out the folly of supposing that it is their interest, or is ever imagined by them to be their interest, to discourage young or unknown writers. They do discourage unknown stupidity or mediocrity, and are properly shy of unknown eccentricity; but to suppose that they deliberately suppress what the public would enjoy or profit by is to suppose that they are not only knaves, but fools.

THE REGENERATION OF EGYPT.

MENLO PARK, Cal., March 15, 1892.

IN the Valley of the Nile to-day there are three Egypts. There are the sub-stratum dominions of the Egypt Exploration Fund—an ancient land of sphinx, pyramid, mummy, and scarab, ruled over in this century by a dynasty of archæologists. Superimposed is the Egypt of Mohammed, with its tapering minarets, swelling domes, and dusky bazaars, and all the torpifying influences focalized at Cairo in the teachings of the great university-mosque of El-Azhar with its 19,000 students swaying and muttering over the Koran. Above this, in turn, is the Egypt of the English occupation. The English soldier kicks football in the yard of the barracks where Arabi hatched his rebellion, and the English tourist plays polo under the shadow of the great pyramid, to the regimental music of the Royal Irish Rifles.

England is known to be the greatest of colonizers and the most successful governor of Orientals, but the reforms she has wrought in Egypt during the past nine years are simply astounding. A looted treasury, a disorganized and almost hopelessly corrupt administration, a rebellious and cowardly army, and a people crushed under unbearable taxation have in this short space of time, and in the face of Oriental apathy and French obstruction, been metamorphosed into order, plenty, and content. This work of the English in Egypt is an achievement of which every Anglo-Saxon must be proud. And yet there has been little romance in this restoration. It is chiefly a story of common sense, honesty, and straightforward hard work. The sole trustee of an insolvent people first sought to reëstablish their financial credit. The basis for any such substantial improvement must be intelligent care of the resources of the country. The wealth of Egypt is exclusively agricultural; the productiveness of the soil depends primarily upon irrigation and the regulation of the Nile; therefore, attention was first turned to engineering works for the proper accumulation and distribution of the water supply.

English irrigation officers of long experience in India were brought to Egypt, and they immediately set to work to remedy, first of all, the sorry condition of the Delta. Here the irrigation is done by deep canals, and an attempt had been made in former years to supply these canals by holding up the waters of the Nile at the apex of the Delta by means of a great barrage, or weir. The barrage had been constructed by a French engineer at a cost of $10,000,000, but as soon as completed it had cracked, and, for eighteen years before the English occupation, had been abandoned. At the time of the arrival of the English engineers, a contract had been made for forcing the water into the canals of one province only, at an annual cost of from $250,000 to $300,000, and arrangements had about been perfected for supplying the rest of the Delta in the same way at an initial cost of $3,500,000 and an annual expense of $1,250,000. But the English engineers at once repaired and strengthened the condemned barrage, and steam-pumps were rendered unnecessary. Continuous irrigation must be accompanied by drainage, and 1,500 miles of drains have been put in since 1884. Lagoons in the north of the Delta cover 1,280,000 acres, but in a few years half of this land will have been reclaimed and cultivated. Already 200,000 acres have been reclaimed. In upper Egypt the defects were likewise great, for the water failed to reach the higher lands, and in years of average Nile flood there was an annual loss of nearly $200,000. In the very deficient flood of 1877, the loss was about $5,500,000; in 1888 it was $1,500,000; but even then there was water enough if it could have reached the land. Col. Ross, the chief irrigation officer, has proved that by a system of canals, sluices, siphons, escapes, and weirs, the whole Nile Valley can receive the necessary mud-charged water, even in the worst years. These works, now under construction, will be completed in 1893 at a cost of $3,000,000.

A few instances of the economies effected by the English engineers may not be uninteresting. In 1885, at a cost of $25,000 for cutting a main drainage channel between the canals Tanah and Gabada, 30,000 acres, water-logged and worthless from salt infiltrations, were reclaimed. In 1886, a new head channel was given to the Kurtamia Canal at a cost once for all of less than $10,000, thus saving an annual outlay of $7,500 for silt-clearance. The Samana Canal had been neglected for twenty years, and all the lower portion of the tract it should have supplied with water had been thrown out of cultivation and was inhabited by a few Bedouins; but a judicious expenditure of $15,000 on the canal brought back into cultivation 50,000 acres, and the deserted villages are all rebuilt. To clear the Sahel Canal of silt each year used to require 18,000 men working for forty days; but by a junction canal and a siphon the canal now clears itself—or, in other words, by an expenditure once for all of $27,000, an annual saving of $35,000 has been effected. One of the results of the work of the Irrigation Department is that, since 1884, the average annual yield of cotton has been 150,000 tons greater than in the five years preceding 1884, representing a value of over $4,000,000 yearly, exclusive of the cotton seed. The cotton crop of 1891 in Egypt was the largest ever known.

A word must be said as to the character of these engineers who have been foremost in the redemption of Egypt. They have had to contend with vested abuses on every side, learn the spoken Arabic of the common people, and overcome religious prejudices and superstitions which, as Balzac says, are the most indestructible form of human thought. While the French engineers always stayed in Cairo, each of the present irrigation inspectors travels over his district again and again, often on foot, suffering much hardship, and seeking the shelter of the humblest mud huts, lest, by accepting the entertainment of the wealthy proprietors, he be suspected by the poorer natives of having been bribed. In Ismail's time the canals were first tapped for the estates of the Khedive, then for the pashas and village sheikhs, and last of all for the poorest native; but now all are served alike. In times of scanty supply, the water is given in rotation to the land without reference to the owner. In former days a poor man was completely at the mercy of his rich neighbor and of the corrupt native inspector, who, unless bribed, would not open a sluice at a critical time for the crops. Now the poor no longer have to

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bribe for water; they have confidence in the English inspectors and have learned that petitions will be listened to and wrongs redressed. The actual head executive officer of public works is Sir Colin Scott-Moncrieff; the chief of irrigation works is Col. J. C. Ross, who knows thoroughly every canal and something of nearly every landholder in Egypt. Of course the history of these public improvements is not a record of monotonous successes. There have been mistakes and failures, but the errors were almost worth committing for the sake of the candor, no less refreshing than astonishing, with which they are admitted in the official reports. Here is a sentence from Moncrieff's report for 1886: "The dredging contracts have been altogether badly drawn up, a circumstance I regret all the more that I am directly responsible for them." In his report for 1888 he says: "I am sorry that I cannot accept this view of the case. The consequences show that the Council and Mudir were both wrong, and that Maj. Brown, their technical adviser [an irrigation inspector], was still more wrong, his error being shared by the direction in Cairo whose representative he was and who tacitly approved of his action."

The greatest social reform carried out by the English is one connected with the annual clearing of these canals from silt. From immemorial times public works had depended for their execution upon forced unpaid labor, and this system was the core of most of the official corruption. The sheikh compelled the poor man to give his labor for weeks on the canals, while the rich bribed exemption for their laborers, and the crops of the wealthy flourished, while those of his absent neighbor suffered for want of cultivation. The English set about to abolish this system and to substitute paid contract labor, but were met with a prophecy that wages would not bring the laborers and only force could drive the fellaheen to clear the canals. Nevertheless, the gradual suppression of the *corvée* was undertaken. In 1883, the amount of this forced unpaid labor was equal to 202,650 men working for 100 days; in five years it had been reduced to 58,788 men for 100 days; and in December, 1889, the *corvée* was totally abolished for the first time, probably, in all the thousands of years of Egyptian history. Slavery, too, really no longer exists. An office for the abolition of slavery was created, and from 1883 to 1889 over 10,000 slaves were set free, the provincial governors being required to refer all cases of slavery to this department. In one province of upper Egypt nine-tenths of the workmen employed in lifting water were formerly slaves, but the number has now been reduced to one-tenth.

Another interest under the care of the Department of Public Works is the construction of agricultural roads. Until three years ago it would have been impossible to take a cart-load of produce from one centre of population to another in the Delta. Few of the canals being navigable, the cotton was carried to the railway on camels, which, though adapted for the desert, were not suited to the alluvial soil of lower Egypt. In 1889 surveys were made, roads were begun, and, from results obtained on local private roads on the State domain, it is expected that carts will take the place of camels.

Before the arrival of Sir Evelyn Wood, into whose hands and those of English officers was given the reorganization of the Egyptian army, the lot of a native soldier was ill-fed imprisonment and the lash. Systematic abuse had extinguished every spark of courage. Twelve thousand men had been sent to the Russo-Turkish war, but the behavior of a brigade put under fire at the battle of Karahassankeni was so unsatisfactory to the Turkish commander that none of the Egyptian troops were brought into action again. Their cowardice at the battle of Tel el-Kebir is a matter of more recent history. Now, the whip has been abolished, the native soldier has enough to eat and is paid regularly. When Capt. Hallam Parr wanted six men for hazardous service at Suakin, the whole battalion volunteered. At the joint reviews of English and Egyptian troops held last winter in Cairo, the natives really carried off the honors for soldierly appearance and proficiency in tactics. When Tokar was retaken by the engagement of a year ago, there was no complaint of want of bravery on the part of the natives who were now fighting under English officers. The fellaheen soldier had not forgotten that, during the cholera epidemic of 1883, it was English officers who had nursed him day and night, doing the most menial labors for him, and burying those of his comrades who succumbed to the disease.

In the civil service, too, reforms were immediately set on foot. The number of employees was reduced during the first year of the English occupation to an extent effecting an annual saving of $113,000. The number of English in the civil service is, however, still much smaller than of French or Italians. Previously there had been no fixed rules for promotion. It had been customary to increase the salary of an official without reference to the post he held, while now the salary of a position is fixed and without regard to the individual who holds it.

In 1890 there was a reduction of 50 per cent. in the rates of internal letter postage, with a result that the number of letters increased by a like per cent.; and it may be said in general that the postal arrangements of Egypt are now equal to those of Europe. At the beginning of last year, a reduction of one-half was likewise made in telegraph rates, yet the month of January, 1891, showed a considerable increase of receipts over the same month of the previous year. The railway service has been improved; trains now run on time, and the number of passengers carried in 1889 was over a million more than in 1886.

The police, at present numbering about 7,000 men, were formerly undisciplined and subject to the provincial governors; the body has been put under English officers, completely reorganized, and is subject to proper discipline. A large number of small prisons have been abolished, records of offenders are kept, hygienic rules and prison labor have been adopted, and the prison administration is not behind that of European countries.

Probably the most serious obstacles have been encountered by the English sanitary officers. They have had to combat the prejudices of an ignorant, teeming population which was ready to attribute every epidemic to the decrees of fate. The mosques, with their unsanitary latrines, and the cemeteries are all fruitful beds of disease, but, as they are connected so intimately with the religious life of the people, it is difficult to remedy the existing evils without arousing fanatical antagonism. Something, however, has been accomplished, and, in Cairo, old sewers that were nothing more than elongated cesspools whose course could be traced by the cases of typhoid fever occurring in the adjacent houses, have been filled up, and in 1890 30,000 tons of sewage were removed from the city. Under the old régime, the hospitals were unclean pens to which a native would not go unless taken forcibly by the police. Now these establishments are clean, properly equipped, and have their dietary. Patients are no longer brought in chains, and may leave when they like. At Kasr el-Aini, in Cairo, considerably over 100,000 cases were treated during 1890, and most of the provincial hospitals show proportionate returns. Moreover, dispensaries have been opened in thirteen towns; registration of births and deaths is required; vaccination is obligatory; a veterinary department has been established to suppress cattle diseases; barbers and midwives, the former being practitioners of minor surgery, are required to submit to an examination to determine their proficiency; and, as a matter of special importance, there has been organized a system of flying hospitals for stamping out epidemics of smallpox, typhoid, and typhus fever. It is true that all of these sanitary reforms are not yet perfect in their practical workings.

In 1887 there were only twelve schools under the Ministry of Public Instruction, with an attendance of 1,919, of whom only 50 per cent. were paying pupils. Three years later the number of schools and pupils had quadrupled. This is the more noteworthy because education is not compulsory. A training college for native teachers and an agricultural college have been opened, and the medical school has been reorganized with a six years' course. The Government schools are now superior to private schools, while formerly the contrary was the case.

The most recent reforms have been concerned with the judiciary; Justice Scott, a Judge with experience in India, having last year been appointed judicial adviser to the Government. This appointment means English inspection of the native courts; the facilitation of justice to litigants; a reduction of the opportunities for influencing the decisions of the native judges; and the prevention of interference on the part of higher native officials connected with the executive department of the Government—an interference that has been recognized as existing. Last year, soon after the establishment of the new courts of summary jurisdiction as a part of this reform in upper Egypt, the business disposed of was five times that transacted under the old system.

This, in brief, is the story of what the English have done in Egypt. The history of the regeneration wrought has been admirably epitomized by Mr. Alfred Milner, the Under Secretary for Finance in Egypt:

"Does it make for the independence of Egypt that her material prosperity should be placed above the reach of accident by great durable public works? that her army should be taught to fight? that justice should be brought within the reach of the poorest peasant? above all, that a new generation should be brought up in the practice of, and the demand for, conscientious and incorrupt administration? So much for our honesty on the positive side. Now look at it on the negative. Have we pursued any exclusively English interest? No. Have we laid hands on the privileges of any other nation, on the capitulations, the international tribunals, the Caisse de la Dette? No. Have we sought to use our predominant influence to favor English trade, English residents, English contractors, to the prejudice of those of other nations? No. Have we, as we are sometimes accused of doing, crammed the public service with English officials? No, a thousand times no. The great work of irrigation, of which we have spoken so much, involves the employment of only seventeen Englishmen, from top to bottom, and, in the other departments which we

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control, the number is even smaller in proportion. In the Ministry of Finance, with its hundreds of employees, there are just half-a-dozen English. Wherever a vacancy arises for which there is a competent native candidate, it is filled by a native. It is not our aim to make the public service English in its personnel, but to make it English, or rather let me say European, civilized, progressive in its spirit."

EDWIN H. WOODRUFF.

GONCOURT AND HIS FRIENDS.

PARIS, April 1, 1892.

I MUST confess having read with much interest all the successive volumes of the 'Journal des Goncourt.' The memoirs of the literary and artistic society of our time have an extraordinary degree of sincerity. Goncourt—why should we say any more the Goncourts?—is an impressionist, a photograph; he might almost be called also a phonograph—he can repeat a conversation word for word. His receptive faculties have prepared him admirably for the work he has undertaken. Instead of thinking at his fireside and allowing his thoughts to vanish like the smoke and flame of his chimney, he thinks with his pen in his hand, and we become his confidants. The new volume, which is the sixth of the series, and extends from 1878 to 1884, is the last which will appear in his lifetime. You remember, perhaps, that the fourth volume was the occasion of a bitter quarrel between Goncourt and Renan. I must suppose that by refusing to publish in his lifetime the part of the 'Journal' which relates to the years after 1884, Goncourt has taken a wise precaution; most probably he speaks in this latter part of many people whom we see every day, he breaks many idols, he goes against the current of public opinion at many points.

As usual, Goncourt gives at the end of his volume an alphabetical list of names; from it it is easy to find out at a glance the persons who play the greatest part in his existence. Princess Mathilde is one. One day she confided to him her excessive love for France and Paris:

"I have a real need of Paris, of its pavement, . . . the quays, in the evening, with all their lights. . . . There are some days when I feel so happy to live in it. . . . It has so long been my desire to inhabit it. . . . No, when I am not in France, there is a real perturbation in me. I have the *diable au corps* to return to it, to find myself with Frenchmen. . . . The first time I put my foot on French soil, in August, 1841, it was two o'clock in the morning. . . . The first *pantalon garance* I saw was too much for me; I leaped from my carriage to embrace him. Yes, I embraced him!"

Another day, "walking in the streets of Montmorency, in fine health, the Princess, leaning on my arm, and smiling at the beautiful sun, at the happiness of her life surrounded with the affection of a small, friendly society, stopped suddenly and said: 'Yes, it would be hard to go away; I confess that I find life good.'"

These little extracts have a touch of reality which gives the 'Journal' its character; they are bits of life. One day, the Princess speaks of her return to Paris after the war and the Commune; she had to walk from the northern terminus to the Boulevard Haussmann, without being able to find a carriage. "At last, dead with fatigue, she sat on a bench which still stands opposite her former hôtel in the Rue de Courcelles, and there, dying with thirst, and not daring to enter any house, she sent Julie, her maid, to get her a glass of *groseille* in a wine-shop at the door of her hôtel." The conversation falls one day on the beauty of the Princess when she was young: "Yes," said she, "I had an extraordinary complexion. I remember that in Switzerland, when I was fourteen years old, they put on my cheek a leaf of a Bengal rose, and it was impossible to see any difference." The Princess has a sense of fun: she tells one day of a quarrel she had had with her coachman about an old horse she wished to sell. "How can the Princess think of getting rid of the last horse we have . . . that has had arms presented to him?" (That was during the imperial days, when the guard of the Tuileries presented arms to the Princess.)

The new volume of the 'Journal' is full of Daudet and of Daudet's family. Those who admire Daudet's novels will find much in it that will interest them: "I am entirely subjective," says Daudet one day; "I can invent nothing. . . . I have already put all my family in my books. . . . I cannot go any more to the South." It is quite true that Daudet is not a creator, he takes all his types from life; he has used in his books Gambetta, Morny, and a number of others; we all know in Paris who the Nabab was, we can put the names on all the characters of his novels. Daudet explains the subject of 'Les Rois en Exil' to Goncourt: "A very good conception, as it is at the same time poetical and ironical. He wants to make a king's tutor out of the son of a democrat, whom two friars find in a hôtel in the Latin Quarter, with its stairs full of girls *en savates*. This, well done, would be of a delicate and great modernity. Suddenly Daudet interrupts himself: 'You see, it is very unfortunate . . . In reality, you have perturbed me—yes, Flaubert and my wife . . . I have no style—no, no, that is positive. The man born on the other side of the Loire cannot write French prose.' And so he goes on, thinking aloud." The conversation of Daudet can be defined in a word: it is improvisation. It is a mixture of pretty little things, of fine observation, of droll remarks, of fancies poetically comical.

The drama made of the 'Rois en Exil' was first read at Daudet's house. Coquelin had given his advice to Delair, who had constructed the drama. "Coquelin is quite amusing with his infantine admiration for the work which he has hatched. 'You will see how it is done. . . . That's what I call *du théâtre*,' and he begins to read the thing as if sugar were melting in his mouth. Gambetta hears all the play standing, in the posture of a caryatid. He is gay, *bon enfant*, amiable. Really, it must be confessed, among the political men he is the only one who has a social charm—a charm in which disappears at times the vulgarity of his person."

Turgeneff comes in for a large share in the 'Journal,' and, as usual, the citations made of his conversations are very original. At one of the dinners of the Five (they were only four after the death of Flaubert), there was a rambling conversation on death—"love or death, curiously enough, is always the subject of our conversations after dinner." Daudet says that this idea of death poisons his life; he never has entered a new apartment without looking for the location of his coffin. Zola is not more cheerful; since his mother died and, the staircase being too small, had to be taken down by the window, he never looks at this window without thinking who will come down first from it, he or his wife.

"'Yes, death, since that day, is always in our thoughts and often—for we have now a light in our bedroom—when I look at my wife, who does not sleep, I feel she thinks of that, too, and we remain thus, without making an allusion to what we are both thinking of, . . . from a sort of *pudeur*, yes, of *pudeur*. . . . Oh! it is a terrible thought [and I see terror in his eyes]. There are nights when I spring suddenly to my feet and remain for a moment in a state of unspeakable terror.'

"'As for me,' says Turgeneff, 'it is a very familiar thought, but when it comes, I dismiss it so,' said he, making a gesture of refusal. 'For for us, the "Slav fog" (*brouillard slav*) has something good—it has the merit of protecting us against the logic of our ideas, against the extreme pursuit of deduction. With us, you see, they tell us when we are in a blizzard, "Don't think of the cold, or you will die." Well, thanks to this fog I was speaking about, the Slav does not think of the cold, and with me the idea of death effaces itself and is rapidly dissipated.'"

On February 1, 1880, Turgeneff gave a dinner to Zola, Daudet, and Goncourt on the eve of his departure for Russia.

"He leaves for his country, this time, affected by a strange sentiment of incertitude—a feeling, he says, which he had in his early youth, in crossing the Baltic, when the ship was completely surrounded by fog, and when he had no other companion than a monkey chained on the bridge. Then, while we are still alone, he begins to talk of the life which he is going to lead during six weeks, of his home, . . . and of the interviews he has from a little balcony, which almost touches the ground, with the peasants his neighbors. Delicate observer and fine comedian that he is, he gives me the representation of three strata of the present generation: the old peasants, whose sonorous and empty talk he imitates, composed of monosyllables and endless adverbs; the sons of these peasants, who speak like lawyers with fine words; the grandsons, the silent, diplomatic stratum, the destructive stratum; and when I said that these conversations must tire him, he replied, no; it is very curious what you can draw from those illiterate people, whose heads are always at work in solitude and quiet."

Flaubert is very often mentioned and cited. Flaubert makes at times very true remarks: he says, for instance, that all the descendants of Rousseau, all the Romantics, have no very clear conscience of right or wrong; he cites Chateaubriand, Madame Sand, Sainte-Beuve, and he ends thus, after a moment's reflection, "It is true, Renan does not feel indignant at injustice." Flaubert, however, is not flattered; he is represented as a sort of coarse and Pantagruelic companion, full at times of an exuberant gayety; at other times falling into a kind of aggressive sadness. "He must be allowed always to play the leading part; he likes to talk on nasty subjects; with his brick-colored face, redder than a Jordaens, and his long flowing hair, he makes me think of a descendant of a Red Indian." Flaubert delights in abusing and astonishing the bourgeois.

On Easter Sunday, in 1880, Daudet, Zola, and Goncourt go and make Flaubert a visit at Croisset. Maupassant takes them from the station at Rouen to Flaubert's house, who receives them with his hat on, in a sort of pinafore (*calobre*), and with "his good affectionate face." "It is really very fine, his place: this immense Seine, on which the masts of the boats are not seen to move as they would in a theatre; the great trees, with their forms tormented by the winds of the sea; the park; the long terrace to the south, the peripatetic alley—all makes a true asylum for a man of letters."

They all returned soon afterwards to Croisset to attend Flaubert's funeral. The doctor took Goncourt into a corner:

"'He did not die of apoplexy, he died in an epileptic attack. . . . In his youth, you know, he had had fits. The journey in the East had nearly cured him—he remained sixteen years without having any; but the annoyance of his niece's affairs made him ill again, . . . and last Saturday he died of an attack of congestive epilepsy, with all the symptoms, with foam at the mouth. . . . Perhaps if

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I had been there, by making him breathe for half an hour, I might have saved him.' Oh! it was a terrible impression to enter into the room of the dead: . . . his handkerchief on the table, near his papers, the little pipe with the ashes in it, the volume of Corneille in which he had read the day before, only half put back on the library shelf. The procession begins; we go up a dusty road to a little church—the church in which Madame Bovary made her confession."

I must end. I will only add that this last volume of the 'Journal' seems to me the best of the series.

Correspondence.

WALT WHITMAN.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: It is with great hesitation that I venture to protest against the judgment passed on the dead poet in the *Nation*. But some one who knew Walt Whitman in his later years should tell your readers that he was not prematurely broken down by indulgence and excess. He died an old man with the clear mind and kindly heart which had always been his. Strong emotions and neglect of regular habits may have helped to bring on a stroke of paralysis, but poets are not commonly censured for these. The egotism of Walt Whitman was that of a little child, who likes to be petted and loved. His praise of America was that of a little child, who sees no fault in his mother or his home. His outspokenness was that of a little child, who has not been taught the conventions of polite society. Anything in his poetry objectionable to our hypersensitive taste is allied to the contents of the Elizabethan drama—in no way to the licentiousness of the Restoration.

Walt Whitman may not be much read by the common people; but what poet is read by the common people? At all events, the common people who knew him loved him. The formal faults pointed out by your critic may be present, but good technique is common in the world; insight and inspiration are rare.

"Mighty Prophet! Seer blest!
On whom those truths do rest
Which we are toiling all our lives to find,
In darkness lost, the darkness of the grave;
Thou, over whom thy Immortality
Broods like the Day, a Master o'er a Slave,
A Presence which is not to be put by;
Thou little child. . . ."

C.

Garrison, N. Y., April 13, 1892.

THE TEACHING OF ENGLISH LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Naturally I am greatly gratified to find Prof. Emerson declaring that my little paper in the April *Educational Review* "will be of service," despite his opinion that it is "somewhat behind the times," since I am apparently not "acquainted with the literature of the subject." Therefore I was grieved to discover also that he had not been quite candid in his presentation of the "facts" to which he called your attention, and by means of which he sought to convey the impression that I had carelessly or wilfully overlooked certain institutions of learning where that is done which I had said was not done anywhere, so far as I knew.

What I wished to show in my paper was that there was no institution of learning in the United States acknowledging that the teaching of the English language and the teaching of English literature are equally important, and wholly unrelated one to the other, and recognizing this truth by the establishment of two full and independent professorships, one of the English language and one of English literature. If Prof. Emerson knows the name of any college or university where these two equal professorships exist side by side, he failed to include its name in his letter to you.

Brander Matthews.

Columbia College, New York.

ANOTHER WORD ON DANISH LITERATURE.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Having for some time past made a special study of Danish literature, I feel tempted to say a few words anent the letters on this subject recently published in your valuable paper. Though sympathizing with the sentiments that evidently prompted their writers, I feel bound to say that these gentlemen have fallen into the error, not uncommon with explorers in a new field, of somewhat overrating the intrinsic value of what they came across, simply because it presented a new and unfamiliar aspect.

Thus, I venture to say that the mention made, with a certain respect, by Prof. Bronk of a writer whom he styles "Schjoerring," would make any Dane of education smile. There is, to be sure, a lady by the name of Miss Johanne Schjoerring, who, like our own Charlotte M. Braeme, produces numerous novels much relished by certain members of the gentle sex; but to consider this well-paying rubbish part of Danish literature, in the strict sense of this term, has, to my knowledge, never occurred to any of the compatriots of the immortal Hans Christian Andersen.

There are writers among those mentioned both by Prof. Bronk and by Mr. Dodge who may hardly be said to rise far above the "Schjoerring level"; there are others, like Ploug, who, no doubt, are of a nobler description, but yet not at all suitable for transplantation into a foreign idiom. Not even in the success, in English dress, of a book like Drachmann's 'Pledged' should I have much faith, the novel in question being too ponderous and diffuse; but several of the minor pieces of this writer are of unexceptionable merit, and I am sure that, in these days of short stories, a collection of Drachmann's sailor tales would prove a boon to both publishers and readers. Then there is Jacobsen's 'Marie Grubbe,' an historical novel wherein the psychological subtlety of a Turgeneff or a Bourget is blended with the amazing picturesque powers of a Gautier or a Sienkiewicz. But for the horribly affected dialogue of Jacobsen's other novel, 'Niels Lyhne,' this study of modern Danish society might be likewise recommended, but I confess that the high rank awarded to this book by the great critic, Georg Brandes, and other Danish writers, to me seems somewhat imperilled by the intolerable Gongorisms in which it abounds, especially, as noticed, in what is supposed to be the every-day talk of men and women of the nineteenth century.

Schandorph, whose name is given by Prof. Bronk, is an excellent writer of short, humorous stories—his novels strike me as a trifle heavy; and Herman Bang has produced at least one masterpiece, the tale 'At the Roadside' (*Ved Veien*), a pure gem of delicate irony and penetrating sadness. Of Georg Brandes it were needless to speak, most of his beautiful works being familiar to students of literature, in either German or English translations, but I wish some one would give us a translation of some of the dramatic essays written by his brother, Edward Brandes. I am convinced that all who know this delightful writer will agree with me when I declare that very few, even among the most famous French critics of matters dramatic, have equalled the Dane, and that by none has he been surpassed. Of course, what he has written concerning Danish plays and actors is, as a rule, of local interest only, but his papers on Salvini, Sarah Bernhardt, and other celebrities of universal fame may be enjoyed by readers of any nationality, and they possess the rare merit not only of conveying an impression, vivid and profoundly conceived, of the subject directly treated, but besides that of enouncing—by the way, as it were—a whole code of dramatic philosophy, so to speak, as sound and well-founded as it is clearly and brilliantly formulated. Edward Brandes is also the author of sundry plays, some of which, "A Visit," for instance, are masterpieces; but I regret to say that the present state of the American stage would scarcely encourage an attempt to introduce them before our footlights. There are no fire-engines or tanks in Dr. Brandes's dramas, not even an Italian Minister of Foreign Affairs who unites with his state office that of chief of a gang of assassins.

T. E. H.

New York, April 15, 1892.

GOV. ANDREW ON THE DRED SCOTT DECISION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: I have been much gratified by the elaborate review of 'The History of the Supreme Court of the United States,' appearing in your pages for March 31 and April 7. The reviewer has called my attention to an analysis of the Dred Scott case by the late Gov. Andrew of Massachusetts, while a member of the Legislature of that State. I confess that this escaped me. Will you kindly refer me to the debate in which this analysis was stated? I would very much like to read it.—Very truly yours,

Hampton L. Carson.

Philadelphia, April 8, 1892.

[The analysis above referred to was made by Gov. Andrew in a speech in the Massachusetts Legislature, delivered in 1858. His speeches, addresses, and other writings have never been published in book form, and Chandler's Memoir contains no allusion to this speech. At the time when the "Dred Scott decision" was a subject of discussion, the analysis was cited and quoted, and is to be found in (among others) the annotated edition of Mr. Lincoln's Cooper Institute Address, and in the "Oration of George Sumner, delivered before the municipal authorities of the City of Boston, July 4, 1859." As we have had more than one inquiry concerning it, and it is something not easily accessible to readers, we subjoin the extract given by Mr. Sumner.—Ed. Nation.]

"On the question of the possibility of citizenship to one of Dred Scott's color, extraction, and origin, three justices, viz., Taney, Wayne, and Daniel, held the negative. Nelson and Campbell passed over the plea by which the question was raised. Grier agreed with Nelson. Catron said the question was not open. McLean agreed with Catron, but thought the plea bad. Curtis agreed that the question was open, but attacked the plea, met its averments, and decided that a free-born colored person, native to any State, is a citizen

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thereof, by birth, and is therefore a citizen of the Union, and entitled to sue in the Federal courts. But three judges of the Supreme Court have, as yet, judicially denied the capacity of citizenship to such as Dred Scott and family.

"Had a majority of the Court directly sustained the plea in abatement, and denied the jurisdiction of the Circuit Court appealed from, then all else they could have said and done would have been done and said in a cause not theirs to try and not theirs to discuss. In the absence of such a majority, one step more was to be taken. And the next step reveals an agreement of six of the justices, on a point decisive of the cause, and putting an end to all the functions of the Court.

"It is this. Scott was first carried to Rock Island, in the State of Illinois, where he remained about two years, before going with his master to Fort Snelling, in the Territory of Wisconsin. His claim to freedom was rested on the alleged effect of his translation from a slave State, and again into a free Territory. *If, by his removal to Illinois, he became emancipated from his master*, the subsequent continuance of his pilgrimage into the Louisiana Purchase could not add to his freedom, nor alter the fact. If, by reason of any want or infirmity in the laws of Illinois, or of conformity on his part to their behests, Dred Scott remained a slave while he remained in that State, then—for the sake of learning the effect on him of his Territorial residence beyond the Mississippi, and of his marriage and other proceedings there, and the effect of the sojournment and marriage of Harriet, in the same Territory, upon herself and her children—it might become needful to advance one other step into the investigation of the law; to inspect the Missouri Compromise, banishing slavery to the south of the line of 36° 30', in the Louisiana Purchase.

"But no exigency of the cause ever demanded or justified that advance; for six of the Justices, including the Chief Justice himself, decided that the *status* of the plaintiff, as free or slave, was dependent, not upon the laws of the State into which he had been, but of the State of Missouri, in which he was at the commencement of the suit. The Chief Justice asserted that 'it is now firmly settled by the decisions of the highest court in the State that Scott and his family, on their return, were not free, but were, by the laws of Missouri, the property of the defendant.' This was the burden of the opinion of Nelson, who declares 'the question is one solely depending upon the law of Missouri, and that the Federal Court sitting in the State, and trying the case before us, was bound to follow it.' *It received the emphatic endorsement of* Wayne, whose general concurrence was with the Chief Justice. Grier concurred in set terms with Nelson on all 'the questions discussed by him.' Campbell says, 'The claim of the plaintiff to freedom depends upon the effect to be given to his absence from Missouri, in company with his master in Illinois and Minnesota, *and this effect is to be ascertained by reference to the laws of Missouri.*' Five of the Justices then (if no more of them) regarded the law of Missouri as decisive of the plaintiff's rights.

"The Chief Justice and Justices Wayne and Nelson and Grier, plainly hold that, on this point, the Courts of the United States were bound to follow the decision of the Court of Missouri, which had already passed upon the question. And if Campbell did not intend to be bound by the Missouri Court, we are at a loss to understand what he does mean; since, asking, 'What is the law of Missouri in such a case?' and, after citing Scott vs. Emerson in the 15th Missouri reports and various authorities of several States, he concludes that 'questions of status are closely connected with questions arising out of the social and political organization of the State where they originate, and each sovereign power must determine them within its own territories.' He held conclusively and distinctly, and so also did Mr. Justice Catron, in common with all the judges besides McLean and Curtis—on their own investigation and reasoning—that the law of Missouri (to be ascertained either by themselves, or by exploring the declared opinions of the courts), must rule the cause. And they all affirm that, *irrespective of the law of* Illinois and of the Territory, Scott was a slave by the law of Missouri, on his return within the confines of its jurisdiction.

"If the law of Illinois could have had no possible effect to secure freedom for Scott when again remitted to Missouri, it follows that neither could the laws of the Territory have availed him. The majority of the Court had no occasion, therefore, to follow them into the Territory, in order to look into the condition of Harriet and the children; because Dred, as a slave, could have no wife nor child known to the law or recognized by the Court. But if any such occasion had existed, the same answer—the effect of the Missouri law—was sufficient to control the cause."

CHOICE OF ELECTORS BY PROPORTIONAL REPRESENTATION.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In the *Forum* for February, Mr. Edmunds and Mr. Phelps discuss the question whether Presidential electors should be chosen by Representative districts, as is proposed this year in Michigan. Mr. Phelps approves of this method; Mr. Edmunds objects, and suggests that some form of proportional representation, preferably the cumulative vote, be tried instead.

There is no doubt that the choice by Representative districts is open to at least two objections: the temptation to gerrymander, and the injustice of allowing the party of the majority to name the two Electors-at-Large—an important matter in the small States. On the other hand, the cumulative vote, whatever be its theoretical merits, is very uncertain in its working, is not well adapted to the choice of large bodies, and is unnecessarily complicated for the appointment of Electors. In voting for Electors, the people are not selecting men for their merits, but are merely naming clerks to perform an almost mechanical duty. People vote, not for these men rather than for those, but for the party or the men giving their name to the ticket. That form of proportional representation is, in this case, the best which most accurately and simply gives expression to the will of the voters.

The best-known forms of proportional representation are, in the order of their simplicity, the free list, the limited vote, the cumulative vote, and the assignable vote, commonly called the Hare system.

The two last methods are too uncertain and too complicated for the present purpose. The limited vote has great merits where selection is to be made among candidates of all parties (or of no party), where independence at the polls is to be encouraged, and where care must be taken to prevent objectionable men from slipping in at the foot of a successful ticket. But for the choice of Electors, where voters are divided by party lines, where it is of no importance which names on a certain ticket are selected to perform the clerical duty, and where it is of the utmost importance that each ticket shall have assigned to it, obviously and without question, the exact number of Electors to which it is entitled by the number of its backers, there is no method at once so simple and so accurate as that of the free list.

To illustrate the method: Suppose that a State entitled to 12 Electors casts about 300,000 votes. There are three tickets in the field. The Republicans cast about half the votes, the Democrats about a third, the Prohibitionists the other sixth. Obviously the Republicans are entitled to 6 Electors, the Democrats to 4, the Prohibitionists to 2. The executive officers, therefore, after canvassing the votes, send certificates of election to the first 6 names on the Republican ticket, the first 4 names on the Democratic, the first 2 on the Prohibitionist; and the votes of these 12 men, when opened at Washington, express with accuracy the decision of the people of the State. Under our present system, the Republicans in this State would secure all the Electors, even though their vote were much less than half of the whole. Under the proposed district system, they would secure the two Electors-at-Large, and probably from six to eight of the rest—eight to ten in all; while the Prohibitionists would not be represented at all.

It is obvious that, if all the States were to choose their Electors by the method of the free list, not only would the Electoral vote of each State be an accurate echo of the popular voice, but the result for the whole country must be much more accurate than under either the present system or the district method. To test the matter, the figures of the election of 1888 have been examined, and the actual result of the election has been compared with (1) the "ideal" result, obtained by dividing the entire Electoral vote of the country among the various tickets in proportion to the vote received by each; (2) the result if each State had used the free list; and (3) the result if each State had voted by Representative districts. (In the last case, it was necessary to suppose that each district would have chosen an Elector of the same political faith as the Representative actually chosen.) The results are interesting.

At the election of 1888, the Republicans secured 233 Electors, the Democrats 168.

(1.) *Ideal.* The country cast about 11,000,000 votes. Of these the Democrats cast 5,500,000, the Republicans 5,400,000, the Prohibitionists 250,000, and the Labor parties, combined, 130,000. Of the 401 Electors, therefore, the Democrats should have had 195, the Republicans 192, the Prohibitionists 9, the Laborers 5.

(2.) *Free List.* Under the operation of the free list, the result would have been: Democrat 203, Republican 189, Prohibition 5, Labor 4.

(3.) *Districts.* If the two Senatorial Electors in each State had been elected by general ticket, and the others by Representative districts, the result would have been: Democrat 190, Republican 211—certainly an unfortunate test of a system that aims to secure a result representing, even roughly, the popular will.

It is hardly necessary to say that, on the adoption of a just system of proportional representation, the rule requiring a majority vote of the Electoral College, with the alternative of a choice by the House of Representatives, should be repealed. When the country has a method of election which secures the appointment as President of the person representing the largest number of voters, the antiquated "majority" notion, which still, with unhappy results, controls elections in one or two small communities, may well be abandoned.

There is much to say in favor of the use of the free list, or of the limited vote, in choosing aldermen, public boards and committees, and even Representatives in Congress, especially in those States which have adopted the official ballot; "but that's another story." C. P. W.

Milton, Mass., April 10, 1892.

THE EDUCATION OF YOUTH IN THE SOUTH.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Your paper of March 31 is before me, and it would give me great pleasure to accept the conclusions of "W. W.," in his letter on "The Education of Young Men," as applying

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to the South; but the facts, as observed by me while living at different times in three States of the South, all go to confirm the view of Mr. Holmes as expressed in your issue of March 10. So far as the North and the West are concerned, I cannot speak from personal knowledge, but am perfectly willing to accept the opinion expressed by three such papers as the St. Louis *Republic*, the Buffalo *Courier*, and the *Nation*. Mr. Holmes has correctly enumerated the causes that have conspired to bring about this sad result in the South; but I think we may add another. The emancipation of the negro in the South emancipated another class —the poor white; for before the war there was no middle class in the slave States. There was no place under the sun for the poor white. After the war all was changed. The members of this class found opportunities for improving their condition which they were quick to seize. Many of them were possessed of a shrewd common sense which was readily convertible into gold, given only an opportunity. They did not deem it necessary for their sons to have more than the merest business education; but as their daughters could not go into the counting-room, and could not run the plantation, they decided that the best thing they could do for them was to give them a good education, and this they have done in many cases, and the daughters in turn have made desirable marriages.

I have observed that the same disparity exists among the German and Swedish emigrants in Texas, as regards the education of their sons and daughters. In other words, the great upward movement in education among the lower classes has affected girls mainly. Visiting a number of the schools of this State recently, I was struck with the fact that in the high-school grades the girls outnumbered the boys very largely. The boys had stopped to go into business, or in many cases to do nothing, while the girls had the perseverance and the ambition to continue. The evil exists most glaringly in the smaller towns and more newly settled communities of the South. One of the larger towns of the State of Texas, with which I happen to be acquainted, will serve as an example. In this town there is an unusual number of accomplished young women, but the young men with whom they associate are, to say the least, ordinary; the sum total of their "book knowledge" being, in most cases, confined to the three R's, and their sole accomplishment the ability to dance with grace. On one occasion I asked one of the young ladies who received the attentions of such men, how she could tolerate them. She said in substance: "I *don't*, but it is this or nothing, and I don't care to be placed upon the retired list at present." This young lady, rather than select a life partner from such a herd, gave her hand to a man twenty years older than herself. Can we blame her very much because she did not have the grace to allow herself to be "shelved"? Let those of her sisters who would have acted differently cast the first stone at her. It has come to be the exception, and not the rule, for a young woman in the South to marry a man who is, so far as education goes, her equal.

It does not seem to me that "W. W." is correct in his analysis of what education is. He asks: "Is it not the acquiring of knowledge, irrespective of how it is acquired?" This we cannot admit unqualifiedly. A blacksmith may each day become more and more intimately acquainted with his trade—may, in fact, daily learn something new about it; still, at the end of a long life, he will not be known as an educated man. It does not seem, then, that "W. W.'s" position is a tenable one when he urges: May not the young business man be an educated man though he knows little about books? for is he not thoroughly up in his business, and is he not in this direction adding something daily to his store of knowledge?

"Si dives, qui sapiens est,
Et sutor bonus et solus formosus et est rex,
Cur optas quod habes? Non nosti quid pater, inquit,
Chrysippus dicat: Sapiens crepidas sibi nunquam
Nec soleas fecit, sutor tamen est sapiens."

Making shoes is one thing, and being a king is another and a very different thing; though some people, both in years gone by and in the present year of grace, have thought that the one implies the other. A. L. B.

University of Mississippi, April 4, 1892.

"LAW ENGLISH."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: The article in your issue of March 31, entitled "Decay in Professional Mannerisms," suggests decay in other respects than those mentioned. Certain changes in progress in the legal profession, which are unfortunately not as commendable as those that you point out, readily occur to a member of that profession. Not to mention decay in professional ethics, oratory, or even manners, which the evidence of tradition at least tends to establish as a fact, one of the most noticeable and rapid processes of deterioration is the decay in professional language.

An example of this is the language not only being spoken but written in the community in which this letter is penned.

There seems to be a steady growth of what, after the analogy of that moss-grown corruption of the classical tongue, known as "Law Latin," may not inaptly be called "Law English." The following are a few illustrations of "English as she is spoke and writ" at the bar and on the bench of the State of Illinois.

The use of the word "office" as a verb not only has become common among attorneys-at-law, but has lately received the sanction of the Supreme Court: "An attorney officing in the same building" (126 Ill., 587).

The Appellate Court speak of a witness who "testified . . . that he was up to G's house" (37 Ill. App., 381). By a failure to see quotation marks in the opinion, the Court indicates an appropriation of the witness's choice phrase.

"We are satisfied that the testimony given by the appellee . . . establish these facts" (54 Ill., 198).

"The train ran from Quincy to Hannibal and return" (109 Ill., 320).

"We cannot say that five thousand dollars is a compensation too large for an injury so serious, and which at any moment may become strangulated and produce death" (38 Ill., 245). Whether it was the injury which the judges feared would at any moment become strangulated, or whether they were harrowed by the thought of the compensation's producing death, is left in some doubt.

The last three quotations are samples of the deliberate utterances of the highest tribunal in this State. "If they do these things in a green tree, what shall be done in the dry?"

S. R. T.

Chicago, April 4, 1892.

"DOG GONE IT."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Fifty years ago, people of pretty good habits of speech in Virginia, and their children in Ohio, said, in the first person, "I'll be dog'd"; second person, "Dog on you"; third person, "Dog on it, Dog on him." Others, of inferior speech, said *dawg* for dog, and *awn* for *on*—"I'll be dawg'd," "Dawg *awn* you," etc. Then, as often occurs in similar cases, the *g* was carried forward from *dawg* to *awn*, making "Daw' *gawn* you," "Daw' *gawn* him," "Daw' *gawn* it." In our time, people trying to be correct put the *g* back in *dawg* without removing it from *awn*, and so have made "Dog gone it," and I observe that some dialect story-writers make their people say, "I'll be dog goned." But in the old phrase nobody said, "I'll be dog *on'd*." The *on* came in only in the second and third persons.

Dialect often has a grammatical structure which is not to be disregarded, but few writers have the thoroughness of knowledge which distinguished Mr. Lowell's handling of his dialect, or, perhaps, his sense of the importance of accuracy in the matter. But entire accuracy is not easy. I think "Dog gone it" is simply "Dog on it." The Southern and Western people of those earlier times swore outright, without circumlocution, and profaned the Sacred Name with shocking readiness; but although the queer oath of Socrates —"By the dog of Egypt"—may have been solemn originally, I think our phrase has no relation to anything higher, but is derived from the use of the dog as a soldier, or as a fierce beast under control. These qualities gave him great social and economic importance in wild regions. It was no light thing to be dogged—that is, chased, bitten and worried by a powerful and furious dog. The verb *to dog*, in the sense of setting on or inciting a dog to attack an animal or a man, was much used when I was young, but I do not often see it in literature of late. J. B. Harrison.

Franklin Falls, N. H., April 15, 1892.

SCHLEIERMACHER, NOVALIS.

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: Whether the expression *Gott-trunkener Mensch*, as applied to Spinoza, is also used by Schleiermacher, as well as by Novalis, I do not know; but in the second of Schleiermacher's "Reden über die Religion," page 38 of Carl Schwarz's edition in the "Bibliothek der deutschen Nationalliteratur des 18. und 19. Jahrhunderts," may be found a passage which is sometimes quoted or alluded to in histories of philosophy, and, being as enthusiastic as Novalis's expression, may explain your critic's inadvertence, if such indeed it be. The passage begins as follows: "Opfert mit mir ehrerbietig eine Locke den Manen des heiligen verstossenen Spinoza! Ihn durchdrang der hohe Weltgeist, das Unendliche war sein Anfang und Ende," etc.—Yours truly,

H. C. Bierwirth.

Phillips Academy, Andover, Mass., April 15, 1892.

Notes.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, announce a 'Life of Joshua R. Giddings,' by his son-in-law, George W. Julian; 'The Best Letters of Charles Lamb,' edited by Edward Gilpin Johnson; 'A Cabinet of Gems [from Sir Philip Sidney]' and 'Selections from Sir Walter Raleigh'—first volumes in "The Elizabethan Library," edited by Dr. A. B. Grosart.

J. B. Lippincott Co. have in press the

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'Itinerary of Gen. Washington, from June 15, 1775, to December 23, 1783,' by William S. Baker; 'In Starry Realms,' a new work on astronomy, by Robert S. Ball; and 'A Too Short Vacation,' by Lucy L. Williams and Emma V. McLoughlin, illustrated by the authors with their own kodak.

Macmillan & Co. are about to bring out a new and enlarged edition of S. Dana Horton's 'Silver in Europe'; a new, thoroughly revised and corrected edition of Prof. Jowett's translation of the 'Dialogues' of Plato, in five octavo volumes; and (by way of the Clarendon Press) a 'History of the New World called America,' by E. J. Payne.

Bernard Quaritch, 15 Piccadilly, London, will publish in parts 'Old Wedgwood: The English Relief Art Work of the Eighteenth Century, made by Josiah Wedgwood at Etruria, in Staffordshire, 1760-1795,' by F. Rathbone, with illustrations in color from the best-known examples in public and private collections.

Among minor books of reference of its class, 'The New Cabinet Cyclopædia,' just issued in eight duodecimo volumes by Gebbie & Co., Philadelphia, may meet a certain want for very condensed information, occupying little room on the shelf, and costing comparatively little. The chief editor has been Dr. Charles Annandale, an experienced dictionary-maker, and the American portion has been revised by Mr. A. R. Spofford of our National Library. So far as we have tested it, it has been pretty well brought down, for events, to the date of the present year. Thus, the recent fortunes of Chili are traceable under Balmaceda, Chili, and the United States, but very briefly. On the other hand, so remarkable a find as that of Aristotle's 'Constitution of Athens' is not alluded to under Aristotle or under Papyrus, where the unlimited field of discovery opened by the mummy-cases surely deserved mention. Under Aluminium, no hint is given of the extraordinary decline in the cost of producing that metal, so that it now has about the value of copper. Under Egypt, the English occupation and administration of the country are not explicitly stated. Among the biographical entries, Crispi will be sought in vain. Under Phonograph, the name of the inventor is ignored, though the machine is enumerated in Edison's list. In general there is no reference to the sources of fuller or first-hand information. The lack of scholarly and consistent editing is shown by the spellings "Tourguenieff" (main title), and "Turgenieff" (under Russia). That Bismarck should be said in the same short article to have resigned his Chancellorship in 1889 and in March, 1890, is evidence of faulty proof-reading as well as editing. The numerous full-page maps are very good; the cuts but ordinary.

Mr. Arthur John Butler's translation of the 'Memoirs of Baron de Marbot,' which the Messrs Longman publish in two handsome volumes, with portraits and maps, is very fluent and idiomatic, and has been anything but mechanically performed. To compress the work, Mr. Butler has paraphrased certain portions of it, marking these abstracts by brackets. He has also occasionally called attention in foot-notes to the different, if not more correct, views held by historians and students. Finally, he has provided an index, but this ought to have been analytic; and so simple a device as the running date-line should not have been neglected. In all other respects this reproduction of a first-rate memoir deserves to be praised. Marbot's face, by the way, is not especially attractive at either age.

From Macmillan & Co. we have a new edition of Prof. Hales's useful 'Essays and Notes on Shakspere,' still bearing the London imprint of George Bell & Sons, as in 1884, when we commented on it. It appears to be quite unchanged. Also, a fresh issue of the reprint of the first edition of the 'Pickwick Papers,' published in 1886, with the original illustrations and a bibliographical introduction by the younger Dickens. The nature and the reduced price of this edition must tend to make it the most popular among all classes. Finally, the same firm contributes a little 'Tennyson for the Young,' selected and edited by Albert Ainger, and contrived *not* to be usable for examinations in English literature. We cannot doubt its attractiveness for English children, but the dialect poems will in this country be generally passed over.

Mrs. Gaskell's 'Cranford' forms volume 37 of the "Knickerbocker Nuggets" (Putnams), and we are pleased to observe that in it Martha's "lion" is not turned into a "loin"—a blunder which has marred other recent editions of the book, as has been pointed out by correspondents of ours.

A good idea has been imperfectly carried out in 'Public Statues and Monuments of New York' (Palliser, Palliser & Co.). These heliotype prints have been grouped with relevancy, but the "decorative" borders and legends are in poor taste, and the individual work is sacrificed to the group. The smaller scale should have been reserved for the poorer statues—*i. e.*, for the greater number. There is, of course, a moral in bracketing Brown's Lincoln and St. Gaudens's Farragut, but the latter statue deserved a page to itself, and the first in the book.

One of the latest of the series of "Artistes Célèbres" published by *L'Art* (Macmillan) is 'Les Brueghel,' by Émile Michel. We must say that the Brueghels seem to us to be among the painters whom the world might willingly forget. It is a license of speech to call the nightmares of the elder Brueghel art at all, while the flower and landscape-painting of his son "Velvet" Brueghel hardly rises above an elegant mediocrity. He was a neat and accomplished craftsman, but assuredly not a great man. The other members of the family are even less worth remembrance. The book is, as usual with the series, well made and profusely illustrated.

'Longmans' School Geography,' noticed by us a few months ago, is now followed by two valuable atlases, the 'New Atlas,' political and physical, and the 'New School Atlas'; the first with fifty, the second with a selection of thirty-eight maps. Both are prepared by Stanford, the well-known London map publisher, and edited by Chisholm and Leete, the authors of the geography above named. Apart from a certain lack of delicacy in coloring, the maps are neat and attractive. Strong emphasis is given to physical features, and the variety of illustration in this direction is unusual. Both atlases are well adapted to use in this country by the arrangement of the sheets, which places the United States on early pages, and by the introduction of appropriate physical maps of our territory. The omission of names from the maps has been carried, in our judgment, too far: only seven cities are given in Indiana, only eight in Iowa. A small book of 'Questions to Longmans' School Geography' is also received; and for this all our teachers of geography should be grateful. It makes no claim to completeness, but it is extremely suggestive.

The manner in which islands are tied on to the adjacent mainland by sand bars is illustrated on an extraordinarily large scale in the case of Ceylon, where Adam's Bridge is found by Dr. Walther of Jena (Supplement 102 to *Petermann's Mitteilungen*) to be a string of sand and coral reefs, built out chiefly from the coast of India by the strong currents of the southwest monsoon. The shoals that connect the northern point of Ceylon with Calymene Point on the mainland are less developed, presumably owing to the relative weakness of the northeast monsoon; but if the process goes on, there will in time be an enclosed lagoon between the two bars, comparable in kind but not in size to that now seen behind the little peninsula of Giens, near Toulon, on the southern coast of France.

Among the early Bulletins of the Geological Society of America containing papers read at the Columbus meeting last winter, none is more important than one by Salisbury, who announces the results of his studies on the drift of New Jersey south of the generally recognized terminal moraine. The sharp definition of the glaciated area announced more than ten years ago by the Geological Surveys of New Jersey and Pennsylvania has been generally accepted as conclusive, but must now be regarded as applicable only to the latest ice invasion, while the more weathered drift of a greater and much older invasion is found twenty or thirty miles further south. The complication of the glacial period by division into at least two glacial epochs, widely separated in time compared to the duration of either epoch alone or of post-glacial time, is thus confirmed in the East as well as in the Western States.

Another notable contribution to the glacial problem is found in Leverett's essay on the "Moraines and Raised Beaches about Lake Erie" in the *American Journal of Science* for April, with a map illustrating in rather too rough a manner the prolonged studies of the author in the field. This work has been under the direction of President Chamberlin, for the United States Geological Survey, and serves to illustrate how far theory had outstripped observation; and also how rational the theory is when extended observations, such as are here chronicled, call for so few serious changes in the conclusions already inferred. The southwestward overflow of the glacial Lake Erie, as announced by Gilbert over twenty years ago, is here confirmed; and an indirect discharge for a later phase of the same lake at a lower level is inferred by the way of Lakes Huron and Michigan past Chicago to the Mississippi. At the present rate of discovery, we shall have a good basis for theories of glacial climate by the close of this century.

Cambridge Historical Essays, No. V., is entitled, 'The Influence and Development of English Gilds, as illustrated by the History of the Craft Gilds of Shrewsbury,' being the Thirlwall Dissertation for 1891 by Francis Aidan Hibbert, B.A. (Cambridge, Eng.: University Press). The attention of the author is concentrated, as the title indicates, on the craft gilds of Shrewsbury, but he also strives to point out "how the Shrewsbury records bear upon the various theories which have been put forth respecting Gilds." After a few introductory remarks concerning the place of this borough in gild history (ch. i), and a short sketch of the rise of the gild merchant and craft gilds in general (ch. ii-iii), the history of the Shrewsbury craft fraternities is considered, from the fifteenth to the nineteenth century inclusive (ch. iv-viii). The book throws much light on the trade and customs of an ordinary provincial town, especially in the seventeenth and eighteenth centuries. The development of craft fraternities remains

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the obscurest portion of the gild history of England. This gap would soon be filled up if students would make special investigations into the history of crafts in particular towns, as Mr. Hibbert has done in the case of Shrewsbury.

A new "monthly review of scientific progress," called *Natural Science*, was launched last month by Macmillan & Co. Its aim is "to interpret simply and without excessive technicalities the main results of contemporary work in natural science to those who try to follow the general progress of modern thought." It is reactionary, in favor of the amateur, against the undue development of professionalism. Its scheme consists of notes and comments, signed contributed articles, book reviews; news of universities, museums, and societies; and correspondence. The table of contents in No. 1 is varied. Several of the ten papers are illustrated, and typographically the magazine is open and attractive.

The *Journal of American Folk-Lore* for January-March has an interesting paper, by Henry R. Lang, on the "Portuguese Element in New England," and chiefly at New Bedford, where from seven to eight thousand are congregated. The annual immigration, mostly from the Azores, is from 1,500 to 2,000. They are a good class of population, their names and speech are rapidly Anglicized, and they prefer the common to the parochial schools. Mr. Lang does not intimate that they have made any additions to the local idiom or vocabulary of their American neighbors.

We do not remember to have met before with such a document as is printed in the *New England Historical and Genealogical Register* for April, viz., the newly found paper in which Maj.-Gen. Daniel Denison, on December 26, 1672, "in the sixtieth and one year of his age," "thought meet to acquaint you [his grandchildren] with your predecessors, and your decent from them." Such light on New England pedigrees and British connections has been so conspicuously wanting that Savage, Chester, Waters, and the *Register* itself owe their genealogical existence to the defect. In the same number it is stated that the earliest known Bible provided with blank pages for family records was printed for Mathew Carey in Philadelphia in 1802.

The Bulletin of the Boston Public Library for April contains the diary of a tour in the Eastern States by Robert Gilmor of Baltimore in 1797. The text has real value, as witness the following regarding Boston—"a handsome town, filled with well built houses in general, and some very superb ones, though mostly of wood. The streets are, however, bad, being narrow, wretchedly paved, and no sideway of brick for foot-passengers: my feet were quite sore with traversing the round stones." But Mr. Gilmor also made pen-drawings of houses and landscapes, and these too are of no little value. The Bulletin gives them in facsimile. One of these is a curious "view of New York taken on the road to Utrecht baths, that leads through the narrows"; another is of Broadway from the Battery. The views of Boston show the beacon behind the State House.

Every catalogue of English Prose Fiction is welcome, as sure to differ from every other. That of the St. Louis Public Library is before us, with appendices of musical novels, and of historical novels arranged chronologically and by countries.

—A continuous stream of new text-books in English history and geography testifies to the growing interest felt by Americans of to-day in the elder branch of their race. Among these is a pleasant little book, entitled 'A Short History of England,' by Miss E. S. Kirkland (Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.). It gives no evidence of any study beyond the usual standard authors; but the story is told in an interesting, gossipy way, and is enlivened by brief and apt extracts. It has the merit of being easy to read; but as a text-book it has too many defects of plan and knowledge to be recommended. The book is devoid of the usual conveniences which the reader has a right to expect, and which are indispensable in a school-book: the table of contents is very scanty; there are no maps; and there is not even an index. The old-fashioned proportions are observed: about six-tenths of the book is devoted to the period before 1600, and about one-tenth to the period since 1783. American colonization and its effects on England are dismissed with four allusions. The book departs little from the conventional history, and presents no new views. With a certain liveliness of style there is occasionally a didactic strain which borders on the ludicrous. Thus, the readers are warned that James I. was "an habitual profane swearer." Since Elizabeth had a similar aptitude for strong language, it is hardly fair to single her successor out as a sinner beyond his fellows. The foot-notes often stop to define terms which may be found in every dictionary. While not very erroneous, the book establishes no claim to supplant other text-books now in use.

—Osmund Airy's text-book of 'English History from the Earliest Times, for Colleges and Schools' (Longmans, Green & Co.), is much more dangerous, because it is backed by the name of a well-known historical scholar, and has a well-considered apparatus: side-headings and running dates are provided; there are elaborate sub-sections for class use, and a good index. The genealogical tables, the summaries of dates at the ends of the chapters, and the rough but serviceable maps, suggest that the book is meant to be crammed. A careful examination strengthens the suspicion; like Bright's useful book, this seems to bring in, or at least to allude to, everything that a student of English history ought to know. Thus, on page 509, we have board schools, abolition of the sale of commissions, disuse of religious tests, the Ballot Act, the Supreme Court of Judicature, the Education Bill of 1873, the election of 1874, and, in a foot-note, the war of 1870-71, the creation of the German Empire, and the unification of Italy. The foot-notes are often made a mausoleum for events for which there is no room elsewhere. In order to get in this mass of details, it has been necessary to condense and often to distort more important matters. Thus, after describing the interference of James I. at the Synod of Dort (p. 241), the narrative goes on to say: "There . . . the North beat the South. The works of Vorstius were condemned; Barneveldt . . . was put to death." Surely, Maurice of Nassau had some influence. This habit of throwing together two things, each correct, but of which the relations are completely distorted, is not made any better by Mr. Airy's omissions. Canning's influence on English affairs before 1822 is ignored. The difficulties with America over the neutral trade, and the war in which the pride of the English navy was humbled, are dismissed in the following foot-note: "War had broken out in 1812 with the United States through the anger caused by the orders in council. It was brought to a close in 1814 by the Treaty of Ghent." Mr. Airy is not bound to write the history of the United States, but he is bound to give American and English boys alike some notion of the commercial warfare which was so essential a part of the Napoleonic struggle. On things American the book is throughout very faulty. One of the colonies in 1763, he tells us, was "Hampshire"; during the French and Indian war, "the loyalty of the colonists went to the winds" (p. 393). In 1630 the people of "New Plymouth . . . were joined by 1,000 Puritans under John Winthrop" (p. 247). Cornwallis was captured at "Yorktown at the mouth of the Chesapeake." The map of the colonies in 1775 (p. 393) shows the same degree of special knowledge. A book of the compass of Mr. Airy's might be written which would show the development of the English nation; in the attempt to give too much, the whole is obscured and confused, and serious errors go uncorrected.

—It is a pleasure to examine and to commend Mr. S. R. Gardiner's 'School Atlas of English History' (Longmans, Green & Co.). It goes far to remove the greatest difficulty in the way of good teaching of English history, for it furnishes a clear, well-engraved set of maps covering the whole period to 1891. The author properly includes maps of Europe, America, India, and Africa, to illustrate English *settlements*, *diplomacy*, and *campaigns*. An excellent index adds much to the value of the whole. A set of twenty-two plans of battle-fields makes up the total number of distinct maps to eighty-eight. A few errors may be noted in the European maps, as Switzerland in No. 28, and the Empire in No. 51. The American maps, Nos. 45, 46, and 48, are bad enough to pass for a practical joke. There does not appear to be one State boundary correct in the map of the United States in 1783. If these be domestic and unimportant matters, at least the boundaries of Quebec and Nova Scotia and the line west of Lake Huron belong to the history of England. With these maps replaced, the atlas will be in all respects serviceable and praiseworthy.

—A noteworthy revival of Byzantine studies has marked the last twenty-five years. Until then the traditions of Allatius and others of the seventeenth century were kept up by only a few scholars, whose labors met with little encouragement. Among the most remarkable of these disinterested workers was the late Prof. Sophocles of Harvard, who has unfortunately left no one to continue his labors in America. Many other Greeks have worked in various parts of the vacant field, and among these Paspatis has accumulated invaluable materials relating to the Byzantine monuments of Constantinople. Much has also been done for the understanding of Byzantine architecture in France. It was at Marseilles that Demetrios Bikélas, recently named Chevalier of the Legion of Honor, delivered his lectures "Περὶ Βυζαντινῶν." These were published in Greek (London, 1874), and were translated into English for the *Scottish Review*, where they appeared in 1886-1887. They are essays on "Byzantinism," "Hellenism," and "The Subjects of the Byzantine Empire," and form by no means the least important part of a book of Bikélas's essays, published in 1890 by the Marquess of Bute under the title of 'Seven Essays on Christian Greece.' In England, meanwhile, the Hellenic Society, having on its council Dr. Freshfield, an enlightened student of Byzantine antiquities, has begun a very important work with the generous support of two or three liberal givers. Messrs. Schultz and Barnsley have spent laborious months at the Monastery

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of St. Luke on Mt. Parnassus, at Saloniki, and at the little church of Daphnæ, half way between Athens and Eleusis, as well as at other Byzantine churches in the Levant. Students of the mosaics at Venice and Ravenna will be glad when these wonderfully faithful reproductions and plans are ready for publication. Facilities for subscribing will then doubtless be afforded. Meanwhile, Dr. Karl Krumbacher, professor at the Munich University, has issued the prospectus of a *Revue Byzantine*. Teubner of Leipzig is to be the publisher, and David Nutt, 270 Strand, will receive subscriptions. The projected periodical is to appear quarterly, and its articles will be mainly in French and German, although the collaboration of Greek, English, and Italian "Byzantinists" is already pledged to support it. Its pages will afford a much-needed meeting-ground for all workers in this hitherto neglected branch of learning, and it is to be hoped that America, the adopted home of Sophocles, will give ungrudging support to this effort at organizing the studies which he did so much to make profitable.

—Among the most important researches which astronomers have in hand at present is an investigation of that period of minute oscillation of the earth's axis which gives rise to the phenomena of variable latitude. At its last meeting in the autumn of 1890, the International Geodetic Union, on the motion of Prof. Foerster of Berlin, resolved to send an astronomical expedition to Honolulu, for the purpose of making a twelvemonth series of latitude observations, coincident with a like series at the Royal Observatory, Berlin. Dr. Marcuse of Berlin and Mr. Preston of the United States Coast and Geodetic Survey accordingly went out for this purpose, and the first three months of their work produced substantial results of a most promising character. Upon coördinating several hundred determinations of Honolulu latitude with corresponding results at the Berlin Observatory, Dr. Foerster finds that beyond doubt the latitude in Berlin during this period increased by one-third of a second (about thirty feet), and decreased in Honolulu by almost exactly the same amount. So long ago as 1876, Sir William Thomson, in his Glasgow address, presented a dynamical conclusion that irregular movements of the earth's axis to the extent of a half second may be produced by the temporary changes of sea-level due to meteorological causes, and this striking result of the Honolulu expedition is to be regarded as observational proof of Sir William Thomson's conclusion. It is to be expected that England will coöperate with the other great nations in carrying out the plans of the International Geodetic Union for the most minute investigation of this fundamental problem in astronomy. As a first effort it is proposed to establish four permanent stations for regular and continued observations of this geographical coördinate, at points of approximately equal latitude and on meridians about 90° apart. In this way it is hoped to ascertain the cause of those variations of latitude which have for a long time been suspected at Berlin, Greenwich, and other great observatories, and which could not be wholly attributed to errors of observation. Not only is the research of the first importance in respect to the fundamental observational work in astronomy, but it has exceeding interest in connection with tidal, meteorological, and geological observations and speculations.

PATRICK HENRY.—I.

Patrick Henry. Life, Correspondence, and Speeches. By William Wirt Henry. 3 volumes. Charles Scribner's Sons. 1891.

If William Wirt, the first biographer of Patrick Henry, felt constrained to admit that the materials from which he wrote were "scanty," "meagre," and "utterly disproportionate to the great fame" of his hero, Mr. William Wirt Henry, the learned author and compiler of these three portly volumes, acknowledges that he can make no "such excuse" for either the character or proportions of his work. He is embarrassed rather by the riches of his materials. The new matter he has gathered is indeed of great value, not only for the light it sheds on Patrick Henry's career, but also for the clearer view it gives of many Revolutionary records which are hidden from the public eye in the Executive journals or letter-books kept by Patrick Henry during his five years of service as Governor of Virginia; and others of which are obscured rather than preserved in the manuscript or printed journals of the deliberative bodies in which he sat, whether as a member of the Virginia House of Delegates or of the Continental Congress. The first two of these volumes are devoted to a minute and circumstantial narrative of the life of Patrick Henry, considered in connection with the eventful times in which he acted such a leading part. The third volume contains his correspondence, so far as it has been collected, and a report of the speeches he made in the Virginia Convention of 1788, when sitting in judgment on the Federal Constitution.

If at some few points the reader may be tempted to dissent from the biographer's distribution of his praises and censures, it must none the less be conceded that he is as intelligent and candid in the use of his materials as he has been industrious in their collection and conscientious and impartial in reproducing them with textual accuracy. The eminence of Patrick Henry as a natural orator, even in the absence of any authentic reports of his speeches, is proved by the immediate effects of his eloquence, and by the acknowledged leadership which his eloquence won for him not only among his fellow-citizens in Virginia, but among the members of any deliberative assembly. The style of his eloquence, described by Jefferson as "bold, grand, and overwhelming," has been likened to that with which Mirabeau stormed from the French tribune. The imperious sway with which he controlled the currents of public opinion in his native commonwealth is evidenced not only by the large popular following which he always commanded, but also by the dismay which he often carried into the ranks of his political opponents whenever he set up his banners against them. In 1787 we find Madison confessing himself startled by the spectre of the "omnipotence" which Henry was likely to wield in the debate over the adoption of the Constitution, and at a little later date we find Gen. Washington complaining that "the edicts of Mr. Henry" against Federal measures "are enregistered with less opposition in the Virginia Assembly than those of the grand monarch by his parliaments."

Perhaps the celebrity of Patrick Henry's fame as an orator is proved best of all by the luxuriant growth of popular traditions which gathered in later years around the fallen shrines of his prowess in debate, long after that prowess had passed into the dimness and haze of popular reminiscence. Grote, the historian, has told us in one of his *Westminster* Essays—we quote his idea, not his words—that wherever the popular *Mythus* hides its head in the clouds, and turns the clouds into a nimbus for the glorification of some saint or hero, we may be sure that the saint or hero had some species of preëminence which was sufficient to create in his favor a whole cycle of legends, along with a popular appetite for believing in their authenticity. Of such myths it may be said, that whenever they attach themselves to certain names they do not spring up unbidden, but appear only at points where some great power has been exercised over the emotions of men. That is, the *Mythus* never rushes in with its distortions and exaggerations except at points where some great event or some great character has prepared in the popular imagination a darkened chamber for the display of its enchantments. The oratorical legends which cluster around the name of Henry are all so many tributes to his surpassing eloquence.

Yet, in spite of the sudden brightness into which the name of Patrick Henry leaped at the epoch of the Revolution, it must be admitted that his latter-day fame has come to lack somewhat of the clear definition and large significance in which it loomed before the eyes of his contemporaries. And this result, it seems to us, is not entirely due to the improvidence with which he scattered his oratorical wealth, or to the flimsiness of the materials out of which Mr. Wirt contrived to weave the captivating but unsubstantial first biography of our "forest-born Demosthenes." It is due, we think, in largest part, to the fact that Patrick Henry, in following his sense of public duty, was called to fight two great losing battles in the two supreme crises of American history. In these two supreme conjunctures the conquering cause was pleasing to the gods, but the conquered cause was pleasing to the Virginian Cato. He vehemently opposed the ratification of the Federal Constitution in 1788, and, after that Constitution was adopted, he declared that he "would have nothing to do with it," and fell for a time so completely out of touch with his countrymen that he not only refused to embark his political fortunes in what he called "the crazy machine" of the Federal Government, but became so disaffected to the new polity that, in the first flush of his disgust, he thought of emigrating to North Carolina, where he would be outside of "the more perfect Union," inasmuch as that State, sharing in his fears, and, as some charged, following his lead, had at first rejected the Constitution. At a later date, when North Carolina had acceded to the Union, he joined with some land companies in the purchase of vast demesnes in the remote and unsettled parts of Georgia—the tract bought by all the companies comprised 15,000,000 acres—not only, as he confessed, from motives of speculation, but also from a wish to get on the "frontier" of our consolidated empire, where, far from the "tyranny" that was likely to be established in the metropolitan seat of Federal power, he might breathe the natal air of freedom.

Yet this Republican Cato, who, in his dread of "centralization," was moved in 1790 to seek "an asylum from tyranny" in the wilds of the South, was moved in 1799 to join the Federalist party at a moment when its centralizing tendencies had become so extreme that the party itself was on the point of sinking beneath them into the popular odium from which it was never afterwards resuscitated. For reasons which seemed to him imperative, and from motives which were undoubtedly in the highest degree patriotic, he broke with the "Jef-

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fersonian Democracy" at the very moment when that Democracy was on the eve of the long ascendancy which was destined to give to our politics a new complexion and to our polity a new destiny. For this "defection" he was branded by Jefferson as an "apostate," and it was but natural that as the star of Jefferson rose higher and higher towards the zenith, the old-time fame of Henry should have passed, for a season, into the shadow of the decadent Federalism. When it was proposed at the session of the Virginia Legislature which first convened after Henry's death that a marble bust of the Revolutionary patriot should be placed in the hall of the House of Delegates, the resolution was laid on the table by Republican votes. And so it came to pass that Patrick Henry, who, during the Federalist domination, had never enjoyed the grace of Federalism because his Republicanism was so impracticable, fell from the grace of Republicanism at the moment of its advent to power, because he selected that critical moment for embracing the Federalism which had become impracticable in the eyes of the people. We intend no reflection on either the intelligence or patriotism of Patrick Henry in thus adverting to the game of political cross-purposes by which, during the last ten years of his life, he voluntarily and persistently put himself into stalemate on the chess-board of Federal politics, so far as Federal office-bearing was concerned. In the perplexities and obscurities of concrete politics, it may often be the highest duty of a patriot to fight a losing battle; but it is quite impossible to lead a forlorn hope on some stricken field and at the same time take at its flood the tide in human affairs which leads on to fortune.

It is easy enough to follow the logic of Henry's ideas as well in his sullen opposition to the Constitution as in the sudden *revirement* with which he turned from the Republicanism he had once loved to the Federalism he had once detested. In 1784 he was anxious to strengthen the Federal arm of the Government. Even under the Articles of Confederation, he was willing, if necessary, to enforce the requisitions of Congress "by such distress on the property of the defaulting States or of their citizens as the United States in Congress assembled might deem adequate and most eligible." From this attitude he was shaken by the proposed surrender of the Mississippi River to Spain (for a term of years), at the behest of the Northern and Eastern States. The rights and interests of the planting States were magnified in his eyes precisely in proportion as it was sought to disparage them by this untoward project, and at the close of the year 1786 his mind was so "exceedingly soured" (the phrase is Madison's) by what had already passed under this head that, from being "a champion of the Federal cause," he relapsed at first into a doubtful advocate of constitutional revision, and stepped forth at last as a bitter opponent of constitutional reform on the lines projected by the Federal Convention. What wonder, then, that when the Constitution came before him in this frame of mind, he should declare that he "could not see a single Federal feature in it"; that it was confessedly a "national" Government; that it had "an awful squinting towards monarchy"; that under it the rights of the States would be extinguished, the liberties of the people would be put in jeopardy, the interests of the Southern States would be placed at the mercy of a "Northern conclave," the proceedings of Congress would be "hidden from the yeomanry of this country," and the Northern States would never "assent to regulations promotive of Southern aggrandizement"?

He had hoped for a time to secure the States in their "sovereign rights" under the new Constitution by insisting on previous amendments to this effect as the condition precedent of Virginia's ratification of the instrument. After the Constitution had been adopted as it came from the Federal Convention, and after the amendments which were subsequently added to it had not essentially changed its nature in his eyes, it was but logical that Patrick Henry should hold with the Federalists that the instrument was designed to create a strong national Government, and it was natural, too, that, as an honest man, he should refuse to conspire with the Republican leaders of 1798 in what seemed to him an attempt on their part to read "State rights" between the lines of a constitutional text which was, to him, nothing if not "national." He had forewarned the people of Virginia that if they made their bed on the Constitution, they must expect to suffer much amputation of their personal and municipal liberties at the hands of the Federal Procrustes; and when the Alien and Sedition Laws came to point his moral, he felt that he could not say the laws were "unconstitutional," however impolitic he may have thought them or the Constitution which authorized them. And he could not honestly say that the Kentucky and Virginia "Resolutions of '98" expressed the true intendment of the Constitution when, if there was anything about which he had been emphatic at the epoch of the ratification of the Constitution, it was that by that "abominable" instrument the States which before had been "the characteristics and the soul of a confederation," were to be crushed beneath "one great consolidated national Government of the people of all the States." The very extravagance of his language as a "State-rights" opponent of the Constitution, before its adoption, returned to plague him after its adoption, and shut him up to the hard alternative of being either a political anchorite in his Virginia Thebaid, or of being a Federalist *malgré lui* in the forum of national politics.

In the change of his party affiliations in 1798 and 1799 he was doubtless helped by his horror of the "French infidelity" with which Jefferson was then supposed to sympathize, and by his settled aversion to Madison, whom he had a double reason for disliking when that statesman became, in 1798, the author of the famous Virginia "Resolutions" of that year, after having been the great defender of "Federal rights" in the Virginia Convention of 1788. Patrick Henry had defeated the election of Madison as Senator of the United States in the first choice of Senators made by the Virginia Legislature under the Constitution, and in doing so had pronounced a "philippic" on the political principles of which Madison was assumed to be the exponent in 1788. He disliked Madison only the more when, in 1798, the quondam apologist of the Constitution, with all its national features, came forth as the champion of a State-rights metaphysics which had to Henry, as he understood the Constitution, the air of a spurious constitutionalism.

THE GROWTH OF NAVIES.

The Development of Navies during the Last Half Century. By Capt. S. Eardley-Wilmot, R.N. Charles Scribner's Sons.

THIS book, which is finely illustrated, is one of the series entitled "Events of Our Own Time," which was so well begun by the story of the 'War in the Crimea,' by Sir Edward Hamley. The period covered by the past fifty years is coincident with the reign of Queen Victoria, to whom this book is dedicated; and the development and progress of the English navy—the greatest military marine of the world—during the Victorian era, not improperly engrosses the greater part of the text and illustrations. The changes in the matériel of navies have been so great and striking during the last fifty years that the author is also justified in devoting himself mainly to that branch of the subject, though it should never be forgotten that the value of the matériel depends upon the personnel by which it is actuated.

The first chapter enters into a review of the English navy as it existed in 1840, which year was shortly after the introduction of steam into that service, there being at that time but nineteen steamers upon the list, and these all fitted with paddle-wheels. The first vessel with screw propeller was the *Archimedes*, which began its career also in 1840. Reference is made in this part of the book to the two principal naval operations between 1840 and the beginning of our civil war. The first one was the successful attack upon Acre in 1840, and the second the attack by the allied naval forces upon the sea defences of Sebastopol in 1854. This attack was unsuccessful, and brought forcibly to the notice of the naval and military world the great effect of a plunging fire upon attacking vessels. The attack of the *Galena* and the *Monitor* upon Drury's bluff during our own war emphasized this fact anew. In further discussing the part the navy took in the Crimean war, Capt. Eardley-Wilmot takes issue with Gen. Hamley in regard to the conduct of Admiral Lyons, whom Sir Edward Hamley terms the evil genius of Lord Raglan. We are not disposed here to comment upon this discussion, any more than to quote in this connection the criticism made by Sir Stafford Northcote upon the Crimean war, that "our weakness was shown in the confusion of our arrangements and the absence of military skill." It is quite certain, however, that without the naval supremacy of the allies in the Mediterranean and Black Seas, they would not have been enabled to prosecute this distant war to a successful conclusion, and to repair the many blunders that marked the supply, transport, and hospital services of the English army.

The first appearance of iron-clad vessels took place during this war at the allied attack upon Kinburn, the vessels being little more than floating batteries. The author gives to Col. Paixhans of the French army the credit of originating, in 1825, the idea of iron-clad vessels. France was also the leader in the construction of the iron-clad batteries used at Kinburn, as well as in the creation of the first sea-going iron-clad. In 1859 the celebrated Dupuy de Lôme, chief constructor of the French navy, presented to the world the sea-going armored vessel *La Gloire*, built of wood and armored with five inches of iron. From this vessel and from the *Warrior*, the first English sea-going iron-clad, is traced in the book the development of the broadside armored vessel until the *Alexandra*, with her twelve inches of armor, is reached.

In passing from broadside armored vessels to the early turret ships, the author makes the statement that the idea of a revolving turret upon a low iron-plated vessel originated with Capt. Cowper Coles of the English navy. It seems to be a singularly difficult matter to eradicate this idea from certain English minds. As a proof of his statement, the author mentions the fact that in 1855 Capt. Coles, during the Crimean

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war, mounted a thirty-two-pounder on a raft for service in the shallow waters of the Sea of Azov, and that from this the plan of a turret iron-clad seems to have originated. But as a matter of fact Ericsson had already, upon the 26th of September, 1854, submitted a drawing of an iron-clad steam battery with revolving cupola to the Emperor Napoleon III. at Paris. This drawing was accompanied with an elaborate description and a demonstration of the utility of the battery. The receipt of these papers was promptly acknowledged by the French Emperor, through Gen. Favé, in very flattering terms.

Another error upon the part of the author is to be found in his description of the action between the *Kearsarge* and the *Alabama*, in stating, as one of the principal reasons of the defeat of the *Alabama*, the protection afforded to the *Kearsarge* by the sheet chain secured up and down the side of the ship in the wake of the machinery. Considering the fact that out of 370 shot and shell fired by the *Alabama*, only fourteen struck the hull of the *Kearsarge*, and only one (a thirty-two-pounder) struck the chain protection, this cannot justly be said to have performed a very important part in deciding the action. Superior skill in gunnery and heavier guns decided it, the *Kearsarge* having fired but 173 projectiles when the sinking of her antagonist closed the affair.

The performance of the American monitors led England to build a turret vessel, the *Captain*, but upon the plans presented by Capt. Coles. This vessel, which was masted, capsized in 1870 with nearly all hands, while carrying sail in a squall of wind off Cape Finisterre. The loss of the *Captain*, with its designer, led to an abandonment of the use of sail power upon turret vessels. The turret ship that followed after a long interval, the *Devastation*, was given instead twin screws, increased coal supply, and additional displacement and freeboard. The success of the *Devastation* as a sea-going vessel led to a further development of the type in the construction of the *Dreadnought* and *Inflexible*, the latter having twenty-four inches of armor, a displacement of more than 11,000 tons, and, in a length of 320 feet, the remarkable breadth of beam of seventy-four feet. The barbette system of iron-clads was the next to come to the front, having originated with the French; the turret system was used by them only for coast-defence vessels. The barbette, in this system, consists of a thick inclined wall of armor, usually pear-shaped, built into the ship, and enclosing a turntable which carries a gun at a sufficient height to permit it to fire freely over the wall in any direction.

We have thus described for us, in sufficient detail, by the author, these three systems of armored battle-ships, the broadside, turret, and barbette. To these types have been added others which are combinations or modifications of the three principal systems. The latest type of the first-class battle-ship constructing for the English navy is represented by the *Empress of India*, which vessel is a combination of the barbette and broadside types, with a displacement of 14,000 tons, an armor of eighteen inches in thickness, an armament of four sixty-seven-ton guns in barbette, and ten six-inch guns in broadside, a maximum speed of seventeen and a half knots, and a coal endurance of 5,000 miles at the rate of ten knots an hour. It may be mentioned here that very considerable discrepancy has been found in practice between the estimated and actual coal endurance of most modern men-of-war. Due allowance is not generally given to the drain upon the coal supply caused by running of the dynamos for electric lighting, the distillation of drinking-water, the amounts needed for cooking, heating, ventilation, pumping, and for hoisting purposes.

The English Admiralty, in their system of naval defence, have done little to establish or develop a type of vessels for purely coast defence, wisely using their sea-going armored vessels for that purpose. Upon this subject the author says that "the principle of building special ships for operations confined to the coast found no favor with our ancestors, taught by the experience of long wars that a sea-going fleet is the best defence against any attempt on the part of an enemy to approach our shores." It is a serious question with naval authorities whether a special type of coast-defence vessels is ever desirable; England no longer favors them, the best French writers are opposing further construction in that direction, while Italy does not provide for them in her naval programme. Our conditions are somewhat different, with our more numerous bays and harbors of moderate depth; but even with these conditions there should be very few of this type constructed, and they should be the last to be built. It is not probable that our navy will consist of many armored vessels, and hence the types adopted should be thoroughly sea-going, capable of using their battery in rough weather, and with sufficient speed and coal endurance to enable them to care for the interests of the United States abroad as well as at home. It is a singular state of affairs that the only armored vessels available or nearly ready at the present time for service are vessels designed and built for restricted coast-defensive purposes.

A chapter of the book is devoted to unarmored cruisers, these vessels being rightly considered as the successors of the old-time sailing frigates—the eyes of the fleet, as they were called. Speed was the first essential of the frigate, and should be also of the cruiser, and the old relation between the ship of the line and the frigate should exist between the armored battle-ship and the fast cruiser. The fight between the unarmored English cruisers *Shah* and *Amethyst*, and the small and badly manned Peruvian (now Chilian) iron-clad *Huascar*, dispelled the idea that a modern unarmored vessel of large displacement, even when aided by a second vessel, could cope with a small iron-clad.

After dealing with ships and their various types, the author proceeds to review the progress and development of ordnance, treating of the introduction of rifled guns, their growth in size, the adoption of the breech-loading system, and finally the advent of machine and rapid-firing guns. In the same way torpedoes and torpedo warfare and the advance in propulsion by steam are laid before the reader in a concise but intelligible and interesting manner. The final chapters are devoted to a short review of foreign navies, first European, then those of the United States and the South American countries. The great progress in European navies dates from the close of the Franco-German war. Previous to that time, France and England were the only nations that paid much attention to the development of their naval force, but since then Germany and Austria have each made and continue to make decided progress as naval Powers; Italy has created a strong navy, and ranks high as a Mediterranean naval Power, while Russia, handicapped as she is both by climate and by limited and badly placed coast line, is making rapid and well-planned advance. England has a definite aim in her naval policy, and that is to possess a navy sufficiently large to cope with the combined navies of any two European Powers—France and Russia, for example. France, without proposing to equal England in naval force, aims to have a navy equal in strength to the combined navies of Austria, Italy, and Germany.

In the United States we seem to have neither a definite nor a continuous naval policy. After many years, during which our navy was in a most humiliating condition and our coast line exposed to attack from any insignificant State possessing modern iron-clads and fast cruisers, we have begun to build a modern navy. This we have done in reverse order—fast cruisers, coast-defence vessels, and then battle-ships. But, unfortunately, from our historical experience we have no great reason to believe that this reconstruction, or rather replacement, will be sure to continue until a navy of sufficient strength has been built to protect our extensive maritime frontiers upon the Atlantic and Pacific, as well as our many and growing interests abroad. It must be remembered that the sea to us is no longer a security against attack; in these times of swift vessels with large coal endurance there is no frontier so weak as that along the sea—certainly none is more accessible, for the ocean is full of invisible roads leading from all directions. The construction of a ship canal across the Central American isthmus, whether under private or Government auspices, is only a question of time. This water link between our eastern and western coasts will put upon this country naval burdens and duties, and will demand from us a navy of sufficient strength to control the waters adjacent to the entrances of the canal so that we can assure to the world the neutralization and free use of the canal under all circumstances and against any Power. With these possibilities dawning, we should be impelled, as the French republic has been impelled, to consider the future needs of the republic, and, by legislative commission or otherwise, officially present to the people a naval policy both definite and lasting.

The Chinese, their Present and Future: Medical, Political, and Social. By Robert Coltman, jr., M.D. Philadelphia: F. A. Davis.

In this unpretentious volume of about two hundred pages we have the valuable impressions of a medical missionary in China honestly stated. Dr. Coltman became interested in the Chinese people while studying specimens of the race in Philadelphia. Their amazing skill in the use of the mouth as an atomizer for spraying shirt fronts in the laundry fascinated him. Thence he progressed to the perusal of books on China, only to find in them a lack of detail and meagreness of description in regard to the social state of the people and country at present. Thereupon he determined to go to China to study Chinese humanity at home. Receiving appointment as a medical missionary under the Presbyterian Board to Chinan-fu, the capital of Shang-tung, he reached his post in the autumn of 1885. He at once began the study of the language, and was soon at work among the people.

In plain, straightforward style, and in briefest phrase, Dr. Coltman tells so interesting a story that it is hard to leave the book until one has finished it. He does not describe all China, but he gives us a wonderfully vivid account of what he saw in Northern China. He describes the home life of the well-to-do and the average people, and sketches the routine of the laborers,

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who scarcely keep body and soul together. It is refreshing to find a missionary telling the truth as he saw it, without feeling it necessary to blacken the character of the heathen. Evidently the author is somewhat like the famous translator of Confucius, the Rev. James Legge, who refused to attend meetings in Exeter Hall where the Chinese would be misrepresented. The facts are stated without reserve. Infanticide in the case of female children is rare in North China, for Dr. Coltman—like scores of inquirers in the same region—never heard of a single case. Nevertheless, the girls are often neglected, ill-fed, and poorly clothed, while their brothers receive every gift the fond fathers can lavish upon them. Even the mothers often despise their female offspring and abuse them beyond belief. Fighting among men is rare, except when a creditor tries to collect a debt. It is not often that injury is done; nor is swearing or blasphemy indulged in, the foulest of obscene language taking the place of oaths. Suicides and adultery (in spite of the seclusion of women) are common. The Chinaman is a born gambler. The deaths by starvation are numerous, and the picture of the laborer's struggle for life is pathetic. Yet, as Dr. Coltman points out, the Chinese need not emigrate across the ocean, so long as fertile land is so cheap in Manchuria. Naturally, the longest chapter is upon the diseases prevalent in China. Badly cooked food, vitiated water supply, and malarial climate combine to produce the almost universal stomach troubles. Practising no hygiene, ignorant of the germ theory of disease, yet knowing that no unboiled water is safe to use, they drink only hot water, and look with horror upon foreigners who like cold water. Eye-troubles come next to those of the alimentry canal. Nervous diseases are rare, and the people bear surgical operations well. In discussing syphilis, which is so prevalent, the author shows that this disease is usually the precursor of leprosy. This latter disease the author pronounces only moderately contagious or infectious, and to it he devotes a whole chapter.

On the whole, Dr. Coltman considers that morality in China is not far below the standard of America and England. A refreshingly unconventional chapter treats of missionaries and their work, and one which should be valuable to the merchant and intending fortune-seeker sets forth "business opportunities" in the Chinese cities. Most suggestive are the author's discussions of the present political situation and the future of China. He proves beyond a doubt that foreign intercourse has opened the eyes of a good many millions to the wretchedness of the Government and the unnecessarily hard social conditions under which they live. The causes of discontent are often those which arise from an intelligent perception that is creditable to those who complain. How to remedy the present evil and reform the abuses of ages is the question. Many of the Chinese hope for a change of dynasty, and, through revolution, improvement. Dr. Coltman believes it is not a change of dynasty, but a change of policy, that is needed. Hitherto, China's political safety has lain in the fact that European Governments have been too much occupied elsewhere to give China the attention which her turbulent people have deserved. After the riots and murders, indemnities have been paid, but the ringleaders have not been delivered up. By accepting satisfaction money, Europeans have made the Chinese think that they fear China. The time will come when the Treaty Powers will demand that China be interested in civilization. Unless this great mass of humanity awake from the fumes of the poppy, reform government, and develop resources, it must become the prey of more vigorous nations. There is less danger and menace to Christendom through a "Mongolian invasion" than conquest of China by the energetic men of the West, who want her iron and coal, her land for railways, and new customers for their own manufactures. Unless China awake, the alien will rule.

Except for its terseness and manly directness, Dr. Coltman's literary style is hardly to be commended. His English is of the local American sort, which makes one turn gladly to enjoy a classic author all the more by contrast. A number of well-executed photo-engravings enliven his pages, but there is no index. The neat cover bears in calligraphic Chinese the title and date of a book especially interesting because of its close touch with questions that are of vital interest to Americans.

The Living World: Whence it came and whither it is drifting. By H. W. Conn. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1891. 8vo, pp. vii, 195, illustrated.

A CONCISE and forcible presentation of a widely accepted view of life and its evolution is given in this book. In the really scientific portions, those based on direct study of the recent or the fossil, it shows a discriminating familiarity on the part of the author with his subject that must be founded now on personal observation, and again on acquaintance with good authorities. It is a scientific review more or less affected by speculation and sentiment. There is some weakness in its orthography, as in "phylocarida," "stegecephala," "odontholcae," "nunulitic," "eozoan," "cirrepedia," "belemites," "bracyura," and "globergerina," among other misspellings that might have been cured by a competent proof-reader.

In the conjectural or speculative portions the work is open to more criticism. Numerous references make it evident that the author is thoroughly permeated by the gastræa myth. He says all biological studies point strongly to the conclusion that the sub-kingdoms of animals did not originate independently from the protozoa, but "all had a common ancestor, the gastræa, and this means that only once has the unicellular form given rise to an important line of multicellular descendants which perpetuated itself." There may be nothing impossible in this, but it is hardly probable, and it certainly has not been established. Persistent assertion, extensive advertising, and anxiety to find a common trunk for a genealogical tree have led many to accept the gastræa theory. But when the student, beginning with the single cell, considers the possible aggregations of cells in the evolution of the earlier multicellular types, scepticism at once asserts itself. The forms were limited to lines and planes and their combinations, and to solids. In shapes the protoplasmic solids naturally tended to those of drops of water; they were sub-globular, flattened on the lower side, and, as further enlarged, became depressed on the upper side, the two walls coming closer together, thus approaching the shape assigned the imaginary ancestral gastræa. Without reason that they should not, and without proof that they did not, the assumption that a number of lines, each passing through a stage somewhat resembling the mythical gastræa, were independently originated from the protozoa, is the more reasonable and evidently requires less proof. Seen from this point of view, the gastræal affinities between the sub-kingdoms become mere resemblances, due to physical causes. The plants furnish nothing to take the place of a gastræa, and it is asserted that new types were constantly arising till the cretaceous, and that there is every reason for believing they arose from the earliest existing plants in all cases.

In the sentimental portions of the work the conclusions are quite as positive as in the scientific. An orthodox believer seeking to harmonize science with his belief will regard the book with greater favor on that account. Science is usually distorted in attempts to make it accord with religion. Whether this author has avoided distortion, and whether his conclusions accord perfectly with scientific evolution, we leave his readers to judge. He has decided that the lower types have practically ended their evolution in the distant past; that man alone has possibilities of higher development, which in his case must be wholly mental; that "the new law of love" binds mankind into unity which checks the formation of castes, forcing man to advance a a whole; and that "the law of love is the only law which could produce the highest mental and moral development."

American Architecture. Studies by Montgomery Schuyler. With Illustrations. Harper & Bros.

MR. SCHUYLER is one of the few persons not architects who have something to say about architecture that is worth listening to. His book is a series of articles already published in periodicals, and mainly critical, on the architecture of New York and two or three Western cities. The criticism is very intelligent, usually just, though perhaps more magisterial than will quite please those whom it touches, and with much of the incisiveness of professional criticism, set forth with great cleverness and animation of style, and enforced by illustrations of more than common excellence. The only thing that need put the reader on his guard is a disposition to what the Germans call *Tendenz*, due to a certain partiality in the point of view which Mr. Schuyler establishes in his introductory note. This standpoint is that of sincerity, the straightforward expression of use and construction—a favorite point of view, and admirable for criticism in one degree, but too one-sided for complete judgment. Mr. Schuyler has too much sense for the art of architecture to confine himself to this standpoint, but at times he keeps close enough to it to narrow his appreciation. His discussion of the Brooklyn bridge is an example: his account of its ugliness is just, but his analysis, it seems to us, is at fault, and involves a popular fallacy. It is ugly, he says, because the anatomy of the towers and the anchorages is not brought out in the modelling. This is assertion without any foundation. It may be met by the other assertion that the piers of the bridge are ugly because Roebling lacked the sense of beauty, or else the power to express it, and that the anatomy of the towers and anchorages might have been modelled as emphatically as that of the Farnese Hercules, or of one of Michael Angelo's risen saints, and the piers have still been as ugly as now.

The truth is, that while sincerity and the expression of purpose are as admirable in architecture as in life and conduct, and while the defiance or even neglect of them produces a discord that mars or destroys the effect of beauty, they are independent of it, and no more pro-

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duce beautiful architecture than good sentiment and good grammar produce beautiful poetry. He who fancies himself able to make things beautiful by simply making them sincere or useful, or by elucidating in them the laws of construction, is but laying up disappointment for himself and for those who trust in him.

Horace and the Elegiac Poets. By W. Y. Sellar, LL.D., late Professor of Humanity in the University of Edinburgh. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. 1892.

THIRTY years ago was published Mr. Sellar's first book on the Roman Poets of the Republic; after three lustres followed the first volumes of his Poets of the Augustan Age; and now, after nearly the like interval, comes its companion. It is the work of one in whom were united qualities which nowadays too rarely meet in a single man, for together with sound scholarship he had the gift of literary appreciation and the power of making others share his own enjoyment of literary art. As one lays down the book and reflects that nothing more is to follow from the same hand, strong indeed is the sense of the loss which the lovers of true classical learning have sustained. Not that Mr. Sellar stood in the front rank as scholars are often reckoned now: he invented no modification of the triple-root theory, nor troubled himself with the question whether *-dus* is from *dha-* or from *da-*. Possibly there is not a word about the subjunctive or the locative in all his writings. But he was no "play" scholar either, for a man must have a head as well as a heart to write such a book as this. He would have been the last to belittle the achievements of scholars working in the fields of pure philology, grammar, or criticism; for he knew that these are the men who make possible all intelligent literary study, which else were a vain and unsubstantial thing. But, for himself, he was content to build on the foundations which they laid.

The present book contains a portrait of Mr. Sellar, and a short memoir by his nephew, Mr. Andrew Lang. The first half of the work, some two hundred pages, is devoted to Horace, the second, of the same extent, to Roman elegy and the principal elegiac poets, concluding with a brief sketch of Ovid, left unfinished at the writer's death. The second half contains much that is good, and not the least so is the strong plea for Propertius, whose poems, indeed, in the last few years are getting to be better known and appreciated than they were formerly. But it is the part about Horace that will prove of the greatest value and most general interest. The first chapter treats of the life and personal characteristics of Horace himself. In him Mr. Sellar found "the most complete exponent of the actual life and movement of his time," and yet one who "among all the ancient poets suits the greatest variety of modern tastes." The explanation of this apparent paradox is that "to each successive age and century he seems to express its own familiar wisdom and experience"; that he never talks as from a pulpit, and that he addresses us as his intimate friends, and with the most charming frankness. His own characterization of Lucilius, "comis atque urbanus," better fits himself. He was distinctly a man of the world, knowing his own value, requiring to receive it from all, no matter what the inequality in rank, yet so capable of inspiring deep affection that the dying commendation of the favorite minister of Augustus was "Horati Flacci ut mei esto memor." But "his most marked characteristic was his self-dependence. To live for himself—that is, not to live in selfish isolation, but to be true to his own nature, to be what he was meant to be, and not to try to be or to seem to be anything else—and to be independent of fortune, is the sum of his philosophy."

These broad outlines are of course filled in with more particular treatment of the life and surroundings of the poet, of his relations to society, and of the development of his genius through the three periods into which his literary life is divided. Then follows a chapter on the Satires, their contents and quality. The two great distinctions of Horace as a satirist—his moderation and his truth to nature—are excellently brought out, as well as one of the great charms of these writings, that the satire never hurts. Even when he is laughing at you, you cannot help laughing with him, and nobody ever better hit off this characteristic than the much-abused Persius—

> "vitium ridenti Flaccus amico
> Tangit, et admissus circum praecordia ludit."

Mr. Sellar was of course alive to the excellence of the metrical form of these "Talks," for such the Satires really are. He well says: "It was as great a triumph of art to bend the stately Latin hexameter into a flexible instrument for the use of his *Musa pedestris* as to have been the inventor of a prose style equal to that of Addison or Montaigne. . . . No later writers found the secret of it any more than of his lyrical metres"—and so on into more special considerations of the niceties of the form.

Of the Odes, to which without any doubt Horace owed his immortality, Mr. Sellar points out that they have been, ever since the revival of letters, one of the chief instruments by which literary taste and a delicate sense of language have been educated. This is due perhaps most of all to the fact that a wealth of meaning was conveyed by the use of the simplest and commonest words. We cannot dwell on the chapter devoted to the Odes, though it is the best in the book. The beauty of the rhythm—and Mr. Sellar recognized the fact that Horace rather neglected the Alexandrines and went back to the "integri fontes"—as well as the beauty of the language and the thought, all find fully appreciative treatment; yet it is not concealed from the reader that Horace never reached those heights of creative imagination to which Catullus soared, "nor was he capable of the sustained union of vivid feeling with vivid imagery which we find in the Epithalamium."

Space will not allow us to touch upon the many other topics of interest in the volume, but we are glad to note that the author was not one of those who see in Horace only the Anacreontic singer of the pleasures of love and wine. He appreciated to the full the ethical and patriotic strains in Horace's poetry, and did not hesitate to place him with Virgil, side by side, as the national and religious poets of Rome. Looking at him as a man, he saw no Epicurean idler, but a true lover of books, a lover of art, a lover of the independent life of the country—in a word, a type of the finest culture of his day. The picture suggests the name of another great poet, unhappily now gone from the world—one near whose heart were such studies as these which we have been considering. For Lowell, also, "the dew still glistened on the Sabine farm," and not the least of the regrets for his loss is the knowledge that he had thought of writing something on the Roman poet. They had much in common; as we read them we come to realize the truth that the function of the poet is in the main an ethical one, and that he should be of use in his generation. No idle singers of an empty day were they, in whose poems the first rank is held by the duties of patriotism and of friendship; each was one

> "Qui didicit patriae quid debeat et quid amicis."

Economic History since 1763. Compiled by Benjamin Rand, Ph.D., Assistant in Philosophy, Harvard University. Second edition, revised and enlarged. 8vo, pp. 567. Cambridge, Mass. 1892.

THE first edition of this book was noticed favorably in our columns soon after its publication in 1888. Prepared as a text-book for collegiate students in advanced courses, this work has proved so well adapted to their wants and also so useful to general readers, that continued demand for it has led to the preparation of the present revised and enlarged edition. This consists of selections from the writings of economists, statisticians, and historians illustrative of economic history since the Seven Years' War. The design of the compiler has been to exhibit, in a series of articles of permanent value, different phases of economic thought, and to present in chronological order a narrative of some of the more important events and influences of modern economic history. This design, which was embodied in no small degree in the first edition, is realized more fully in the second edition. The selections published in the former edition were: The Colonial Policy of Europe, from Adam Smith's 'Wealth of Nations'; The Great Inventions, from Walpole's 'History of England'; Economic Causes of the French Revolution, from Von Sybel's 'French Revolution'; The Emancipating Edict of Stein, from Seeley's 'Life and Times of Stein'; The Orders in Council and the Corn Laws, from Levi's 'History of British Commerce'; The Finances of England, 1793-1815, from Porter's 'Progress of the Nation'; The Zollverein, from Bowring's Report (Parl. Doc., 1840) and from Legoyt's 'La France et l'Étranger'; The New Gold, from Cairnes's 'Essays in Political Economy'; 'France under the Second Empire,' from Levasseur's 'Histoire des Classes Ouvrières'; The French Indemnity, from *Blackwood's Magazine* and from Kolb's 'The Condition of Nations'; The Recent Progress of Italy, from Wilson's 'The Resources of Modern Countries'; Public Debts, from Neymarck's 'Les Dettes Publiques Européennes'; and The United States in 1880, which included reports from the Tenth Census on Increase of Population, 1790-1880, by F. A. Walker and Henry Gannett; on The Factory System, by C. D. Wright; on The Cotton Manufactures, by Edward Atkinson; and on The Iron and Steel Industries, by J. M. Swank.

Comparison shows that in the second edition one of these selections, that on the Recent Progress of Italy, has been omitted, and that five new selections have been introduced. These changes have enriched the volume, especially for American readers, and given opportunity for fuller treatment by experts of some of the world-wide economic disturbances since 1873. This will appear upon citation of the titles and sources of the new chapters, which are as follows: The Agrarian Legislation of Hardenberg, from Morier's 'The Agrarian Legislation of Prussia in the Present Century'; The Commercial Policy of the Restoration, from Levasseur's 'Histoire des Classes Ouvrières en France depuis 1789'; Recent Changes in Transportation and Production, from Wells's 'Re-

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cent Economic Changes'; The Liquidations of 1873-'76, from Giffen's 'Essays in Finance'; and The World's Progress in Trade and Industry, translated from Neumann-Spallart's 'Uebersichten der Weltwirthschaft.' Valuable appendices have been added to this edition, containing (besides leading sections from the English Navigation Acts which appeared in the original edition) important sections of American Navigation Acts and valuable statistics relating to the cost of the American Civil War, the payment of the war debt, the growth of Canada, and the United States in 1890—its population, iron-ore mining industry, production of pig-iron and steel, municipal receipts and expenditures, and national, State, and county indebtedness.

The mere enumeration of the contents of the present edition is a sufficient description of it for persons familiar with economic literature. The superior quality and authoritative origin of its different articles may be affirmed for the guidance of others. In bringing together and making available to many readers such valuable material, the compiler has rendered a substantial service to the cause of economic education in the United States. This book especially merits the attention of bankers, lawyers, legislators, and clergymen who desire to understand the causes of present financial, industrial, and social organizations, and to give effective aid in their improvement. It would not be difficult to name some important economic events since 1763 not specifically treated in this volume. Such, for example, are the abolition of slavery in English and French colonies, in the United States, and in Brazil (1833-'71), the opening of certain ports in China and Japan to Occidental trade and emigration since 1815. Discussion of these subjects might properly have been included, but it is doubtful whether the limits of a single volume would have allowed special consideration of them together with adequate treatment of the subjects selected. Further, the avowed design of this work is limited, and the events and influences selected for discussion may fairly be deemed the more important in modern history.

The difficulties of the compiler of such a volume are apt to be underestimated. He must not only find articles of intrinsic and permanent worth, but also of suitable length and acceptable literary form. One or other of these requirements forbids his use of large masses of material, and especially of many Government reports. Despite these difficulties, Dr. Rand has been successful in his undertaking. The educational service he has thus rendered will be best appreciated by persons who know how difficult it often is to persuade college students to avail themselves of their privileges for consulting the authorities on economic history, and how many general readers interested in this subject—especially country residents—do not have access to libraries containing the works of such authorities. No other single period of equal duration has witnessed so many and such far-reaching industrial and commercial revolutions as that from 1763 to 1890. No other single volume known to us seems likely to give the college student or the general reader so instructive, so interesting, and so trustworthy an account of these events as this 'Economic History.'

This edition contains what was wanting in the first, a bibliography and an index. The typographical execution is excellent.

Across Thibet. By Gabriel Bonvalot. Translated by C. B. Pitman. Cassell Publishing Co.

THIS portly and handsomely illustrated work is not from the hands of a tyro. Gabriel Bonvalot, though, as the frontispiece shows, not an old man or even of middle age, is a seasoned traveller. He has won laurels in the exploration of Central Asia, and within three years has issued his book 'Aux Indes par Terre.' Translated into English under the title of 'Through the Heart of Asia,' it has been the talk of all in England who watch with jealousy the movements of Russia. The book told of Bonvalot's journey through and over the table lands of the Pamir. In other words, this Frenchman found a new and dangerous path overland to India, which might be possible to a Russian invading army.

Scarcely rested from his daring journey, this intrepid scrambler over "the roof of the world" prepared to find a fresh path from civilization, across the Central Asian plateau into Tonquin. The Duc de Chartres, who wished his son, Prince Henry of Orleans, to see the world, furnished the means, and forthwith Bonvalot guaranteed to supply the courage, self-command, tenacity, and knowledge of human nature so necessary in the explorer. Huc and Przhvalsky were his literary mentors, but Rockhill, the American, who has gone back to Asia to beat the Frenchman's record if possible, had not yet written. It was but a pleasure journey to leave Paris July 6 and to get to the Siberian frontier. At Jarkent (of the map, Djarkent of the text) began on the 6th of September, 1889, his true journey. Organizing his caravan and proceeding to Kuldja, which only a few years ago was wrested by the Chinese from the Russians, the two Frenchmen were so fortunate as to find a willing companion in Father Dedeken, a Belgian missionary, of splendid physique, who would return home by way of the China Sea. Their plan was now to cross over the Tian Shan Mountains, and strike southward to Lhassa, the sacred city of the Lamas. Over this plateau the travellers moved in the increasing cold, giving names to the mountains after famous geographers and explorers. The plateau is from 13,000 to 20,000 feet in height, and many of the peaks are extinct volcanoes. Between the water in the lakes and the snow, there was only an occasional lack of the means of quenching thirst in this land of stones and sand. Although they met caravans and passed through villages, yet no hostilities were encountered along the route, and no startling adventures were experienced during the entire journey. Crossing the ice of a frozen lake which lay in an old crater, passing through a valley of dry bones, straddling the few inches' width of the possible source of the Yang-tse Kiang, celebrating the Chinese New Year's with the thermometer at 48 degrees below zero, and the death and burial of one of the caravan, were the chief excitements until the region near Lhassa was reached. Here they waited, hoping that orders granting permission to visit the sacred city would be received. Disappointed in their hopes, and with possibly sad loss to the theosophists, the Frenchmen had to content themselves with studying lamaism at the great Monastery of So, and Thibetan humanity on the roads and in the villages. Taking the eastern route at Ta-chien-la, situated at the intersection of the 30th parallel with the 100th meridian east of Paris, they again struck southward, reaching the Valley of the Red River, September 22, having finished 3,750 miles on foot or horseback.

The absence of tables of altitudes and distances, as well as the omission of the original chapter treating of the collections made by the travellers, makes it difficult to form an opinion as to the actual or probable value of Bonvalot's journey to science. Nor are there any indexes to the work, or maps, except a very fair general map of Central and Eastern Asia, with the route marked in red, and the names freshly added to the Thibetan Plateau. The temperatures have been expressed in Fahrenheit, and one cannot but note with admiration the courage, endurance, and good nature continually displayed by these Frenchmen, as well as remark the matter-of-fact tone in which the degradation of the mercury column is noted.

As a work for popular reading the book is well written and furnished. The story is lively, well garnished with wit and incident. The scores of illustrations are mostly from photographs by Prince Henry, who as skilfully as industriously worked the camera. The greasy and long-haired Thibetans are not attractive specimens of humanity, but the author seems to regard them more highly than Chinese, whom he heartily despises. In one instance, he outwitted a petty Mandarin who had kept his papers. Confiscating the official order, a warrant written by the Prefect of the district of Karachar, he gave it up only after his own were restored. Though already invited to visit and take tea with this same Prefect, he found the warrant (when photographed and translated later in Paris) to be a command to all Chinese officers to hinder and turn back the French party. This perfidy seems to be considered necessary by the Mandarins of the frontier and outlying districts of the Chinese Empire in order to prove to foreigners that administration is kept up. Practical diplomacy was usually successful, and out of numerous difficulties the patience, shrewdness, and good nature of the leader always extricated the party. Often in straits for food or water, they reached safely the fat valleys of Annam.

The question, "Is man too prolific?" receives a stereotyped affirmative answer from the Thibetans, whose Malthusianism is secured by a religious system. "Most of the males are now consecrated to Buddha, and the youth thus set apart do not marry, while they do not allow their hair to grow any more, and wear a yellow garter on their leg." This religious Malthusianism is calculated to please the economists who think that the world is too small for mankind.

The author closes his final chapter with the hope that the critics will not be too hard upon him. Since the supreme merit of a traveller is to be honest, to tell the whole truth, and to refrain from the temptation to sensational exaggeration, the critic, while praising the adventurous author for giving us a pleasing story of travel, must also thank him for the unvarnished tale. Nevertheless, Lhassa remains unvisited, and the forbidden city still lures. Unscientific as he was, Huc still remains about our only non-Asiatic authority concerning the metropolis of the Buddhist world.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Abbott, Evelyn. A History of Greece. Part II. Putnams. $2.25.

About, Edmond. The Mother of a Marquise, and the Aunt's Stratagem. Cassell. 50 cents.

Anson, Sir W. R. The Law and Custom of the Constitution. Part II. The Crown. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $3.50.

A Satchel Guide to Europe. 1892. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.50.

Bean, F. Col. Judson of Alabama. U. S. Book Co. 25 cents.

Bennett, Prof. C. E. Xenophon's Hellenica. Books V.—VII. Boston: Ginn & Co. $1.50.

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Black, William. A Princess of Thule. Harpers.
Briggs, Rev. C. A. The Bible, the Church, and the Reason. Scribners. $1.75.
Bultmann, Ida W. Freytag's Soll und Haben, Condensed and Edited with Notes. Boston: Ginn & Co. 70 cents.
Conybeare, F. C. Lotze's Outlines of a Philosophy of Religion. Macmillan. 90 cents.
Dallas, Susan. Diary of George Mifflin Dallas. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. $2.
Davis, R. H. Van Bibber and Others. Harpers.
Dickens, Charles. The Pickwick Papers. Macmillan. $1.
Gaskell, Mrs. Cranford. [Knickerbocker Nuggets.] Putnams. $1.
Greswell, Rev. W. P. Geography of Africa South of the Zambesi. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan. $2.
Grimke, A. H. The Life of Charles Sumner. [American Reformers.] Funk & Wagnalls Co. $1.50.
Grimshaw, Robert. Record of Scientific Progress for 1891. Cassell. $1.50.
Hale, E. E. Sybil Knox; or, Home Again. Cassell. $1.
Hales, John W. Essays and Notes on Shakspere. London: George Bell & Sons; New York: Macmillan. $1.50.
Hamann, A., and Upcott, L. E. Lessing's Laokoon. Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Macmillan.
Harte, Bret. Colonel Starbottle's Client, and Some Other People. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Higginson, T. W. Concerning All of Us. Harpers.
King, Grace. Tales of a Time and Place. Harpers.
Lindau, Paul. Helen Young. Rand, McNally & Co. 25 cents.
Ludlum, Jean Kate. Lida Campbell; or, Drama of a Life. Robert Bonner's Sons. $1.
MacGregor, Miss A. L. John Ward's Governess. G. W. Dillingham. 50 cents.
Maurice, Rev. F. D. Lincoln's Inn Sermons. Vol. VI. Macmillan. $1.25.
McMahon, Rev. J. H. The Consecration of a Bishop. The Cathedral Library Association.
Middleton, Prof. J. H. The Remains of Ancient Rome. 2 vols. London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan. $7.
Miller, Olive Thorne. Little Brothers of the Air. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. $1.25.
Palgrave, R. H. I. Dictionary of Political Economy. Second Part. Beeke—Chamberlayne. Macmillan. $1.
Posse, Nils. Handbook of School Gymnastics of the Swedish System. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 50 cents.
Quiller-Couch, T. I Saw Three Ships, and Other Winter Tales. Cassell. 50 cents.
Robertson, Prof. James. The Early Religion of Israel. London: W. Blackwood & Sons; New York: A. D. F. Randolph & Co.
Shippen, Edward. A Christmas at Sea. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. 50 cents.
Seely, Howard. The Jonah of Lucky Valley, and Other Stories. Harpers. 50 cents.
Smith, Albert H. The Philadelphia Magazines and their Contributors, 1741—1850. Philadelphia: Robert M. Lindsay.

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